

The blueprint for building a biofilm the Clostridioides difficile way

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1 The blueprint for building a biofilm the *Clostridioides difficile way*

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15 Highlights:

- 16 Clostridioides difficile can form aggregate biofilms and surface-attached biofilms
- 17 Transition to a biofilm state is dependent on the production of c-di-GMP
- 18 Cyclic-di-GMP prevents flagellar motility and promotes type IV pili production
- 19 Initiation of biofilm formation requires metabolic adaptation for long-term viability
- 20 Metabolic reprogramming is controlled by major transition phase regulators

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Abstract: Clostridioides difficile is an opportunistic pathogen that causes by a high rate of 23 24 recurrent infections. Persistence in the gastrointestinal tract is thought to be mediated by sporulation and/or biofilm formation. There is an increase interest in C. difficile biofilm formation 25 and recent findings have provided a framework to model surface-attached biofilm formation. For 26 27 in vitro biofilm formation, C. difficile must undergo a metabolic reprogramming as it enters stationary phase. This helps maintain long-term viability and increases responsiveness to signals 28 29 leading to biofilm formation. Metabolic reprogramming and biofilm formation requires several regulatory factors and these overlap with the sporulation cascade. Despite recent advances, 30 31 further research is needed to answer outstanding questions in the field.

33 Introduction

Clostridioides difficile is an opportunistic pathogen of rising public health concern due to 34 increased resistance to the antibiotics used to treat the infections [1]. C. difficile infections (CDI) 35 are a leading cause of hospital-acquired diarrhea and are typically associated with antibiotic-36 induced dysbiosis [1]. Disruption of the microbiota changes the nutritional landscape of the gut 37 and alters the concentration of microbial metabolites that have anti-C. difficile properties [2]. For 38 example, secondary bile acids such as deoxycholate (DOCA) and short chain fatty acids (SCFA) are 39 40 critical for colonization resistance against C. difficile [3]. Protective metabolites produced by the 41 microbiota are slowly restored after completion of antibiotic treatment or fecal microbiota 42 transplant. However, more than 30% of patients that received antibiotics to treat their first CDI relapse and 40% of the relapses are caused by the same strain that first infected the patient [1]. 43 This suggests that *C. difficile* can persist in the gastrointestinal tract. 44

45 Based on current evidence, persistence and recurrence is thought to be mediated by sporulation, biofilm formation, or a combination of the two [4][5]. Evidence for sporulation is based on the 46 ability of spores to enter epithelial cells [6] and the inability of a non-sporulating spoOA-47 48 inactivated strain to cause relapses [7]. However, relapses in C. difficile infections are only reduced when spore entry into epithelial cells is blocked [6] and spoOA controls other 49 50 physiological processes such as metabolism and biofilm-formation [8]. These findings strongly suggest that persistence is not solely dependent on sporulation. Evidence suggesting a role for 51 biofilm formation in relapses includes the ability of *C. difficile* to incorporate into multi-species 52 53 biofilms formed by the gut microbiota [9][10] and biofilm-like structures are detectable on the epithelium or mucus layer of infected animals [11][12][13]. Given the potential importance of
biofilm formation in *C. difficile* infection, researchers are trying to understand the genetic factors,
molecular events and the regulatory pathways leading to biofilm formation in *C. difficile*.

57 The biofilm building blocks: general characteristics of *C. difficile* biofilms

58 Using different models, growth conditions and technical approaches (reviewed in [5]), the genetic factors, physiological processes, and matrix components of C. difficile biofilms were recently 59 60 identified. In a mature biofilm, extracellular DNA (eDNA) is the major component of the biofilm 61 matrix whereas polysaccharides and proteins are minor components [14][15][16][17]. However, 62 proteins play an important role during the early steps of biofilm formation [14][15]. The role of eDNA in biofilm formation is to help C. difficile cells stick together in large aggregates or 63 structures (Figure 1). Release of eDNA from cells for biofilm formation is thought to occur by 64 prophage-induced lysis, sporulation, or autolysis during stationary phase [14][16][18] and current 65 66 evidence supports autolysis as the main mechanism contributing to eDNA. Indeed, the absence of autolytic enzymes such as the lytic transglycosylases Cwp19 completely abolishes biofilm 67 68 formation [14]. Other autolysins are probably involved but have not been tested. Overall, 69 controlling cellular lysis is likely critical for biofilm formation in *C. difficile*.

The teichoic-like acid PS-II is detected in the biofilm matrix [14][15] although it is not clear how PS-II is organized within the biofilm matrix. Cellulose might contribute to the biofilm matrix since a secreted polysaccharide composed of acetylated glucose subunits is detected in culture supernatants [19]. Moreover, the genome of *C. difficile* encodes for proteins predicted to synthesize cellulose [20]. However, deletion of the *bscA* orthologue (*ccsA*), encoding a

- 75 glycosyltransferase involved in cellulose synthesis, did not significantly alter biofilm formed in
- the presence of DOCA [21]. Therefore, the identity and the exact role of the polysaccharides
- 77 involved are not characterized.



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79 Figure 1: Model of biofilm formation and regulation in Clostridioides difficile. This model has two 80 different modes of biofilm formation: aggregate biofilm and attached biofilm. Both modes are dependent 81 on metabolic reprogramming following the depletion of the preferred energy source. This reprogramming 82 is controlled by regulation factors such as CodY, CcpA, SigL, SigH and SpoOA and is required for C. difficile 83 to use alternate source of energy such as glycine and cysteine, and eventually, pyruvate. This ensures that 84 C. difficile maintains high viability during stationary phase while chromosomal DNA (extracellular DNA 85 [eDNA]) is released by dying cells. Once enough eDNA has accumulated. C. difficile can then pass the 86 "biofilm threshold". In the aggregate biofilm, cyclic-di-GMP (c-di-GMP) production is increase in response 87 to environmental cues or changes in cellular heterogeneity of the population. This leads to the production 88 of type IV pilus (T4P) and auto-aggregation. As time progresses, the aggregates grow via auto-aggregation 89 or increase presence of eDNA release by autolysis. Aggregates can sink and start or contribute to the 90 development and maturation of an attached biofilm. (1) In the attached biofilm model, reversible 91 attachment to surfaces is likely mediated by the flagellum, surface structures or general adhesins. (2) Once 92 attached, signal transduction systems will induce c-di-GMP accumulation, which initiates the production 93 of T4P and surface proteins such as CD630_2831 and CbpA. These newly synthesized adhesion molecules 94 will provide stronger binding to the surface. (3) The tightly attached bacteria will multiply and start 95 forming a microcolony. During microcolony formation, autolysis will release chromosomal DNA and will 96 contribute to the biofilm matrix. (4) Maturation will lead to reorganization of the biofilm structure and

97 metabolism, including metabolic specialization of sub-populations. (5) As time progresses, subpopulations will undergo different processes such as phase variation that will create cellular heterogeneity. This will 98 99 lead to sporulation, decrease c-di-GMP concentrations and will ultimately cause dispersion of the biofilm. 100 Events at the cell surface will also have an impact on biofilm formation. For example, S-layer processing by the cysteine protease Cwp84 is critical for maintaining cellular hydrophobicity and 101 102 proper processing of surface proteins, which are important features for surface adhesion and cell-cell attachment. Inactivation of Cwp84 can abolish or increase biofilm formation in a strain 103 104 dependent manner [15][22]. The most important surface structure appears to be the type IV pilus 105 (T4P) encoded by the *pilA1* locus [21], which is important for early steps in biofilm formation but is dispensable during the later stages [23]. Among the other surface proteins, the fibronectin-106 107 binding protein FbpA [24] and two collagen binding proteins, CbpA (CD630 31450) [25] and CD630_28310 [16][26], contribute to biofilm formation. Finally, the flagellum is another 108 109 important adhesion factor although C. difficile can still form biofilms without flagellum and with a non-motile flagellum [15][27]. 110

Several genetic factors are indirectly involved in biofilm formation due to their pleiotropic effects on *C. difficile* physiology. These include the RNA chaperone Hfq [28], the Ser/Thr kinase PrkC [29], the protein chaperone DnaK [30] and the SOS-response regulator LexA [31]. For example, absence of DnaK and LexA affects motility [30][31], and PrkC affects cell division and lysis [32]. These effects could explain the impact of DnaK, LexA or PrkC on biofilm formation. Therefore, these should not be viewed as regulators of biofilm formation.

How and when the biofilm building blocks are assembled: physiology and
 regulation behind biofilm formation

Based on recent advances in the *C. difficile* field and new biofilm formation models in bacteria [33], we are proposing a model for surface-attached biofilm formation of *C. difficile* (see Figure 1) that incorporates two different modes of biofilm formation: aggregate biofilm and surfaceattached biofilm. Through this proposed model, a framework for the regulation of each biofilm formation stage can be proposed as described in the next section.

Pre-conditioning of planktonic cells: Biofilms formed by C. difficile are typically measured 12h to 124 125 7 days after inoculation [8][17][23][34]. This indicates that biofilm formation is mainly induced in 126 the stationary phase. The transition from exponential phase to stationary phase requires metabolic adaptation and reprogramming as preferred energy sources become depleted. This 127 adaptation and reprogramming are controlled by several regulators (see Figure 1 and 2) including 128 CcpA, CodY, and the sigma factors SigL and SigH, that are required for biofilm formation 129 130 [8][14][15][21][34][35]. Inactivation of the sporulation master regulator SpoOA results in 131 decreased biofilm formation in different growth conditions and models [8][14][15]. SpoOA is controlled by SigH, the key sigma factor of transition phase, and also by SinR whose activity is 132 controlled by SinR'. The absence of SinR increased biofilm formation [34], but had no measurable 133 effect on DOCA-induced biofilms [21]. Based on the current literature, we think that SinR-SinR' 134 represses biofilm formation by rerouting SpoOA regulatory activity towards sporulation. This is 135 136 consistent with the fact that the sporulation cascade is probably not required since inactivation of SigE or SigF had no measurable effect on DOCA-induced biofilm formation [14]. Therefore, the 137 138 role of SigH and SpoOA in controlling metabolic adaptation and decreasing motility is critical for biofilm formation (Figure 2). 139



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Figure 2: Proposed regulatory network controlling the biofilm-sporulation nod. Under biofilm forming
 conditions, SigH and Spo0A control metabolic adaptation of cells entering a nutrient limited environment.
 Metabolic regulators and Spo0A inhibit SinR activity leading to up-regulation of c-di-GMP and Type 4 pili,
 and down-regulation of motility. Bolded font and line size indicate the dominant pathways.

145 Metabolic adaptation and reprogramming are required for *C. difficile* to stay metabolically active 146 and viable during stationary phase. At the end of the exponential phase, preferred nutrient sources are depleted and this leads to the down-regulation of the preferred metabolic pathways 147 148 and the up-regulation of alternative pathways [21][34][36]. Specifically, glycolysis and the pentose phosphate pathway are downregulated, and butanoate and propanoate fermentation 149 become up-regulated (Figure 1) [21][34]. The latter process probably uses acetyl-CoA, 150 151 oxaloacetate and pyruvate, which might be produced by glycine metabolism [37]. Furthermore, 152 the Wood-Ljungdhal pathway and the glyoxylate shunt are important to generate energy to 153 induce biofilm formation [34]. In the presence of DOCA, C. difficile relies on proteins degradation,

154 peptides and amino acids uptake, and the oxidative Stickland fermentation pathways to produce

energy to drive biofilm formation [21]. Such metabolic adaptation and reprogramming are dependent on the available nutrients and excreted metabolites. Overall, pyruvate, which is one of the excreted metabolites, produced from the available precursors is a critical inducer of biofilm formation [21][34[36]. The level of pyruvate is sensed by the two-component regulatory system encoded by CD630_2601 and CD630_2602, which then probably induce expression of pyruvate transporters including CstA [21].

Additionally, intracellular levels of the alarmone pGpp and cyclic-di-GMP (c-di-GMP) can also increase during the transition to the stationary phase in response to changes in nutrient availability [35][38][39][40], and for the latter, to induce biofilm formation during stationary phase [34]. Overall, metabolic reprogramming prepares and improves the responsiveness of planktonic cells to signals leading to biofilm formation. In the host, this reprogramming will be influenced by the availability of nutrient such as mucus derived sugars [41][42] or microbiotaderived metabolites [14][21].

168 Attachment and aggregation: Reversible attachment to a surface is an important event initiating 169 the biofilm formation cascade and, in C. difficile, this could be mediated by the flagellum. In support of this, the absence of flagella rotation increased biofilm whereas complete absence of 170 the flagella did not [27][43]. Furthermore, highly motile clinical isolates formed more biofilm than 171 172 clinical isolates with no or low motility [44]. On the other hand, the absence of a flagellum also 173 influences auto-agglutination and sedimentation leading to an increase in biomass accumulation 174 in static biofilm models [15][27][43]. Adhesion via the flagellum is likely relevant for biofilms formed in the gut as the interaction between the C. difficile flagellum and the Fusobacterium 175 176 nucleatum adhesin RadD enhanced biofilm formation [45].

Surface adhesion or nutritional signals will induce an increase in c-di-GMP level that turns off flagellar motility via a type I riboswitch and induces production of the T4P via a type II riboswitch (Figure 2) [39][46]. This would lead to a stronger attachment for cells at the surface (i.e. irreversible attachment) or increase aggregation for planktonic cells [47]. Production of other cdi-GMP controlled surface proteins, such as CD630_28310 and CbpA, will also increase surface adhesion.

183 Microcolony formation and maturation: Once C. difficile irreversibly attaches, the cells will form 184 a larger cluster called microcolony. This process is mediated by cell division, large aggregate sedimentation and production of the biofilm matrix. Cell division is supported by the metabolic 185 186 state of the bacteria and metabolic reprogramming controlled by regulatory factors such as CcpA, CodY, SigL, SigH and SpoOA. Extracellular pyruvate and glycine metabolism, which is mediated by 187 188 glycine riboswitches [48], are probably also involved in this maturation steps [21][34]. This 189 reprogramming is required for a majority of C. difficile cells to maintain high viability while a small 190 fraction of the population releases chromosomal DNA, which accumulates in the biofilm. When there is enough eDNA, C. difficile can then pass the "biofilm threshold". 191

Control of cell lysis is critical at this point because it contributes eDNA to attached and aggregate biofilms (Figure 1). As aggregate biofilms grow, these will sediment and start forming new or contribute to pre-existing microcolony. Expression and production of extracellular polysaccharides should also increase at this point. Recent studies suggested that *C. difficile* can synthesize cellulose and produce an exopolysaccharide composed of acetylated glucose subunits hypothesized to be cellulose but their roles remain unconfirmed [19][20]. 198 Quorum-sensing molecules production should be at its peak during microcolony formation and biofilm maturation as population density is reaching its peak and cells are in very close proximity. 199 200 The genome of *C. difficile* encodes two different quorum sensing systems: a LuxS/autoinduce-2 201 system and agr peptide system. The LuxS system affects biofilm formation under certain 202 conditions [15][18] but was dispensable in DOCA-induced biofilm formation [21]. LuxS is also 203 involved in sulfur metabolism and there is a lack of genetic evidence for an autoinducer-2 204 receptor in C. difficile [49][50]. Thus, the observed effect might be associated with metabolism 205 rather than quorum sensing. Strain 630 only has an incomplete agr type quorum sensing system 206 (agr1: agrD1B1) [51] which is not required for DOCA-induced biofilm formation [21]. However, a 207 complete (agr2: agrACDB) and an incomplete (agr1: agrD1B1) agr system are present in strain 208 R20291, whose role in biofilm formation is not known [51]. Therefore, there is still a need to 209 assess the role of quorum sensing in *C. difficile* biofilm formation.

Biofilm maturation leads to reorganization of the biofilm structure and metabolism, including metabolic specialization of sub-populations. The creation of sub-populations typically leads to division of labor or dispersion. Other mechanisms could also intervene within these subpopulations as *C. difficile* also possess phase variation mechanisms that can influence flagellar motility, and c-di-GMP phosphodiesterases (PDEs) expression, that affect colony morphology [52][53][54]. Moreover, epigenetic regulation could also create population diversity as DNA methylation by CamA affects biofilm formation [55].

Dispersion: Cell leaving the biofilm is an important step that is under studied in *C. difficile*.
Dispersion could be triggered by sporulation or decrease c-di-GMP levels, which could be driven
by an increase in phosphodiesterase activity. For example, the metalloprotease Zmpl is produced

220 when c-di-GMP levels are low [26][56]. This protease is exported to the cell wall, cleaves both surface proteins CbpA and CD630_28310, and causes bacterial detachment from the surface 221 222 [26][56]. Other enzymes might also be exported to the cell surface to digest the eDNA (DNase) or polysaccharides present in the matrix as C. difficile encodes a glycosyl hydrolase, CcsZ, within 223 224 the cellulose biosynthesis operon [20]. Sporulation could also cause biofilm collapse by 225 sequestering calcium from the biofilm matrix. This mechanism was recently identified in Bacillus 226 subtilis [57]. Furthermore, calcium is bound by eDNA, which is the major building block of the C. 227 *difficile* biofilm matrix and is important to maintain structural integrity of the biofilm [58].

228 Conclusion

We propose a biofilm formation model incorporating two different modes of biofilm formation: aggregate biofilm and surface-attached biofilm. Our model is based on experimental data generated using well plates and liquid medium; however, we think this model should help guide future research on biofilm formation by *C. difficile*. We also must consider that some members of the microbiota will influence *C. difficile* biofilm formation by providing nutrients (i.e., crossfeeding) or helping adhesion (for examples see [42][45]).

Development of new tools for genetically modifying *C. difficile* strains [59], will allow molecular dissection of the regulation cascade leading to biofilm formation and answer outstanding questions in this important field (see Box 1).

238 **Conflict of interest statement.**

239 The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

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445 **Box 1: Outstanding questions for future research**

- 446 1. What is the exact role of SinR and SinR' during biofilm formation?
- 2. Do sporulation- and prophage-mediated lysis contribute to biofilm formation?
- 448 3. Are quorum sensing systems required for biofilm formation?
- 449 4. Are the exopolysaccharides produced during biofilm formation and what are their role?
- 450 5. How is dispersion initiated and regulated?

- 451 6. What are the mechanisms behind the influence of the microbiota on *C. difficile* biofilm452 formation (adhesion, cross-feeding, etc.)?
- 453 7. How do biofilms contribute to persistence of *C. difficile* in the gut and participate in454 relapses