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The *Campylobacter fetus* S layer provides resistance to photoactivated zinc oxide nanoparticles.

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41 **ABSTRACT**

42
43 The antimicrobial activity of metal based compounds, including metal oxides, has
44 resulted in numerous agricultural, industrial and medical applications. Zinc oxide nanoparticles
45 are toxic to gram positive and gram negative bacteria as well as to some fungi. In this study we
46 assess the sensitivity of *Campylobacter fetus*, a gram negative bacterial pathogen of humans and
47 animals, to ZnO nanoparticles and determine whether the S layer protects *C. fetus* from the
48 antibacterial action of these nanoparticles. Broth and agar dilution assays revealed that ZnO
49 nanoparticles at 100 µg/mL were bacteriocidal for *C. fetus*. Resazurin reduction assays
50 confirmed the absence of metabolic activity, indicating that *C. fetus* cells had not entered into a
51 viable but non culturable state. Photoactivation of ZnO nanoparticles greatly enhanced their
52 antibacterial activity as evidenced by Minimum Bacteriocidal Concentration (MBC) values
53 decreasing to 16 - 62.5 µg/mL as a function of strain. MBC assays completed in the presence
54 and absence of catalase revealed that H₂O₂, a product of ZnO nanoparticle photoactivation,
55 contributed to *C. fetus* but not to *C. jejuni* cell death. S layer expressing *C. fetus* strains were
56 more resistant to H₂O₂ mediated cell killing than were isogenic S layer deficient strains. This
57 data indicates that *C. fetus* is sensitive to the antibacterial activity of ZnO nanoparticles and that
58 the *C. fetus* S layer imparts protection against photoactivated nanoparticles.

59

60 Keywords: *Campylobacter fetus*, S layer, ZnO, nanoparticles, reactive oxygen species

61 **Introduction**

62
63 The genus *Campylobacter* comprises more than 26 species of gram negative, spiral
64 shaped bacteria. Reservoirs for these organisms include the intestinal microbiota of many
65 animals and the oral microbiota of humans. Of the 17 *Campylobacter* species associated with
66 human infection, *C. jejuni* is most frequently isolated (Kaakoush et al. 2015). *C. fetus*, in
67 contrast is more often considered to be a veterinary pathogen, though human infection occurs. *C.*
68 *fetus* has 3 subspecies, *C. fetus* subsp. *testudinum*, normally associated with reptiles (Gilbert et
69 al. 2014), as well as *C. fetus* subsp. *venerealis* and the closely related *C. fetus* subsp. *fetus*.
70 Recent genomic analyses reveal that *C. fetus* subsp. *fetus* and *C. fetus* subsp. *venerealis* are
71 highly syntenic, sharing 92.9% sequence identity. The remaining unique genomic regions
72 contribute to the host tropism observed in these two subspecies. *C. fetus* subsp. *venerealis* is a
73 bovine adapted pathotype causing venereal disease in cattle, whereas *C. fetus* subsp. *fetus* strains
74 are adapted either to an ungulate host (typically cattle, sheep and goats) or to humans
75 (Kienesberger et al. 2014). Both human and ungulate *C. fetus* subsp. *fetus* pathotypes are
76 associated with extra-intestinal infection and in pregnant individuals bacteria may localize to the
77 placenta inducing premature labor and spontaneous abortion (Blaser et al. 2008; Hoffer 1981).

78 Many Bacteria and Archaea express a regularly ordered, planar array of identical protein
79 monomers, termed an S layer, on their cell surface (Sleytr and Beveridge 1999). Within the
80 genus *Campylobacter*, only *C. fetus* and *C. rectus* express an S layer and for both species, this
81 outermost cell envelope component is a virulence factor (Blaser et al. 1988; Borinski and Holt
82 1990). The *C. fetus* S layer undergoes antigenic variation which during relapsing infection in
83 humans (Tu et al. 2005) and in animal models of infection (Garcia et al. 1995; Grogono-Thomas
84 et al. 2000), allows *C. fetus* to escape antibody opsonization and subsequent phagocytic

85 clearance. In addition, the *C. fetus* S layer provides serum resistance, as it impairs binding of the
86 complement protein C3b (Blaser et al. 1988), and in the absence of opsonizing antibodies,
87 reduces uptake by polymorphonuclear leukocytes (Blaser et al. 1988). In the presence of
88 fibronectin, the S layer also enhances *C. fetus* attachment to eukaryotic cells (Graham et al.
89 2008).

90 Metal based compounds have long been appreciated for their antimicrobial activity.
91 Recently, metal oxides of nanoparticle size (particles with an external dimension ranging 1- 100
92 nm; Lemire et al. 2013) have been found to be particularly toxic at low concentrations to
93 microbes. Zinc oxide nanoparticles display selective toxicity against both gram positive and
94 gram negative bacteria (Jones et al. 2008; Liedtke and Vahjen 2012) as well as against some
95 fungi (Kasemets et al. 2009; Lipovski et al. 2011). Zinc oxide nanoparticle toxicity may be due
96 to destabilization of microbial cell walls and membranes following direct contact with
97 nanoparticles (Brayner et al. 2006; Liu et al. 2009), the release of Zn²⁺ ions (Kasemets et al.
98 2009; Li et al. 2011), and the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) including hydroxyl
99 radicals ($\bullet\text{OH}$), singlet oxygen ($^1\text{O}_2$), superoxide anions ($\bullet\text{O}_2^-$), and hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2)
100 (He et al. 2016; Lipovsky et al. 2009; Prasanna and Vijayaraghaven 2015; Sawai et al. 1998).
101 Antimicrobial activity combined with chemical and thermal stability, has led to the incorporation
102 of ZnO nanoparticles into ointments, lotions and surface coatings, including those lining food
103 packaging and storage containers, to control microbial growth (Król et al. 2017; Manna 2012).
104 The objectives of the current study were to determine the susceptibility of *C. fetus* to ZnO
105 nanoparticles and to assess whether the S layer protects *C. fetus* from ZnO nanoparticle damage.

106

107 **Materials and Methods**

108

109 **Bacterial strains and culture conditions.**

110 Table 1 lists the bacterial strains used in this study. Bacteria were routinely cultured on
111 Columbia agar (Oxoid, Nepean, Ontario) supplemented with 5% (v/v) sheep blood (sBAP;
112 Oxoid) at 37°C for 24 hours under microaerobic conditions (5% O₂: 10% CO₂: 85% N₂). Sheep
113 blood agar supplemented with kanamycin to 50 µg/mL (sBAP/Km) was used for the culture of
114 isogenic S layer deficient strains. *C. jejuni* 81-176 was included as a control organism as its
115 sensitivity to ZnO nanoparticles has been reported (Xie et al. 2011). Cultures were passaged 5 or
116 fewer times for use in all assays. Stock bacterial cultures were stored at -80°C in peptone-
117 glycerol broth (10 g peptone/L, 5 g NaCl/L, 25% (v/v) glycerol).

118 **ZnO nanoparticle antibacterial assays.**

119 Preliminary broth and agar dilution assays ascertained *C. fetus* sensitivity to ZnO
120 nanoparticles. ZnO nanoparticles (30 nm average size, Inframat, Manchester, Connecticut) were
121 suspended in D. H₂O to 100 mg/mL and stored at 4°C (Xie et al. 2011). This stock solution was
122 added to cation adjusted Mueller-Hinton (CA-MH; Oxoid; NCCLS) agar and broth prior to
123 sterilization to generate a range of ZnO nanoparticle concentrations.

124 **(i) Broth dilution assay – kill curve.** Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) assays assess
125 cell growth visually or spectrophotometrically (i.e., OD_{600 nm} < 0.05; Liedtke and Vahjen 2012).
126 *C. fetus* grows poorly in broth culture, and because ZnO nanoparticles at concentrations
127 exceeding 200 µg/mL themselves contribute to turbidity, MIC assays were not suitable for
128 detecting changes in bacterial growth. As such, a kill curve (Mueller et al. 2004) was used to
129 assess nanoparticle-induced growth inhibition.

130 Bacteria harvested from solid medium were diluted in CA-MH broth to a concentration
131 of 10⁷ CFU/mL as estimated using spectrophotometry (OD_{600 nm}). Viable plate counts
132 ascertained actual bacterial numbers. One hundred µL of the appropriate bacterial strain was

133 inoculated into 2 mL CA-MH broth, supplemented with kanamycin as required, containing 0,
134 100, 200, 300 or 500 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ ZnO nanoparticles, and incubated at 37°C under microaerobic
135 conditions with constant shaking (100 rpm). Hourly, for six hours, replicate 100 μL aliquots
136 were removed, serially diluted, and plated on sBAP or for S layer deficient strains, sBAP/Km, to
137 quantify surviving bacteria. After 24 hours exposure to ZnO nanoparticles, a 5 μL aliquot was
138 also spotted onto appropriate agar to assess bacterial cell viability. Assays were repeated three
139 times on separate days.

140 **(ii) Agar dilution assay.** Bacteria harvested from solid medium were diluted in CA-MH broth
141 to 10^8 CFU/mL as previously described. Five μL aliquots of each culture were spotted onto CA-
142 MH agar containing 0, 1, 5, 10, 50, or 100 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ ZnO nanoparticles and incubated under a
143 microaerobic atmosphere at 37°C for 96 h at which time bacterial growth was recorded.

144 **(iii) Photoactivation of ZnO nanoparticles: Minimum bacteriocidal concentration and**
145 **resazurin assay.** Minimum bacteriocidal concentration (MBC) values were determined using a
146 microdilution format in 96 well plates. Although aqueous suspensions of ZnO nanoparticles
147 generate ROS including H_2O_2 , exposure of ZnO nanoparticle suspensions to ultraviolet or visible
148 light greatly enhances ROS release (Lipovsky et al. 2009; Prasanna and Vijayaraghavan 2015).
149 To determine whether photoactivation would enhance the bacteriocidal activity of ZnO
150 nanoparticles towards *C. fetus*, replicate microdilution assays in 96 well plates were generated;
151 one plate received a 30 min exposure to light, the other plate was not exposed. Full spectrum
152 light was generated using a sodium lamp powered by a Lumatex electronic ballast generating
153 $706 \mu\text{moles photons/m}^2/\text{sec}$ (LI-250 light meter; Li-Cor Quantum Radiometer Photometer) at the
154 point of contact with the 96 well plate. Duplicate wells received filter sterilized (0.2 μm pore
155 size) catalase (Sigma-Aldrich, Oakville, Ontario) to a final concentration of 4 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ to quench

156 H₂O₂ (Liu et al. 2003). Thus, MBC values were determined under four conditions: CA-MH +
157 ZnO, Dark; CA-MH + ZnO, Light exposure; CA-MH + ZnO + catalase, Dark; and CA-MH +
158 ZnO + catalase, Light exposure.

159 ZnO nanoparticles were serially diluted 2-fold in CA-MH broth. Bacteria were
160 harvested, diluted to 10⁷ CFU/mL in CA-MH, and 100 µL volumes were inoculated into each
161 well yielding final concentrations of 2 – 500 µg ZnO nanoparticles/well and 10⁶ CFU in a total
162 volume of 200 µL. Control wells contained bacteria either in CA-MH or in CA-MH + catalase
163 (0 µg/mL ZnO).

164 Following inoculation, replicate plates were incubated at 37°C under a microaerobic
165 atmosphere. One plate received a 30 min exposure to light after which incubation was continued
166 in the dark, the other plate was incubated continuously in the dark. After 24 h, the impact of
167 photoactivated ZnO nanoparticles was assessed using both viable plate counts (MBC assay) and
168 resazurin reduction as a measure of metabolic activity. One hundred µL were removed from
169 each well, serially diluted and plated onto sBAP or onto sBAP/Km to enumerate surviving
170 bacteria. Colony counts were collected following 96 h incubation at 37°C in a microaerobic
171 environment. Resazurin (Sigma-Aldrich), also known as Alamar Blue, may be reduced by
172 viable cells to resorufin, a reaction accompanied by a colour change from blue (resazurin) to pink
173 (resorufin). Resazurin was prepared as a stock solution (100 µg/mL) in D. H₂O, filter sterilized
174 and stored in 1 mL aliquots at -20°C. Resazurin was added to the contents remaining in each
175 well to a final concentration of 10 µg/mL. Microtitre plates were incubated in the dark at 37°C
176 under a microaerobic atmosphere for 4 h at which time absorbance was measured at 600 nm
177 (which measures resazurin) and at 570 nm (which measures resorufin) using a Wallac Victor²

178 multilabel reader (Fisher Scientific, Mississauga, Ontario). The percent resazurin reduced was
 179 calculated using the equation:

$$180 \quad \frac{[(\epsilon_{\text{ox}} \lambda_2)(A \lambda_1)] - [(\epsilon_{\text{ox}} \lambda_1)(A \lambda_2)]}{[(\epsilon_{\text{red}} \lambda_1)(A' \lambda_2)] - [(\epsilon_{\text{red}} \lambda_2)(A' \lambda_1)]} \times 100$$

182 where $\epsilon_{\text{ox}} \lambda_2 = 117,216$ (molar extinction coefficient of oxidized resazurin (blue) at 600_{nm}); ϵ_{ox}
 184 $\lambda_1 = 80,586$ (molar extinction coefficient of oxidized resazurin at 570_{nm}); $\epsilon_{\text{red}} \lambda_1 = 155,677$
 185 (molar extinction coefficient of reduced resazurin (pink) at 600_{nm}); $\epsilon_{\text{red}} \lambda_2 = 14,652$ (molar
 186 extinction coefficient of reduced resazurin at 570_{nm}); $A \lambda_1$ is the absorbance at 570_{nm} of the
 187 experimental samples; $A \lambda_2$ is the absorbance at 600_{nm} of the experimental samples; $A' \lambda_1$ is the
 188 absorbance at 570_{nm} of the control samples which contained CA-MH \pm ZnO \pm catalase but which
 189 were not inoculated with bacteria; $A' \lambda_2$ is the absorbance at 600_{nm} of these control samples
 190 (McBride et al. 2005; Pettit et al. 2005). Inhibition of metabolic activity was defined as $\leq 50\%$
 191 resazurin reduction (Pettit et al. 2005). Microdilution assays for MBC and resazurin reduction
 192 were repeated at least twice on separate days.

193 **Transmission electron microscopy.** Samples of ZnO nanoparticles were diluted in D. H₂O to
 194 $100 \mu\text{g/mL}$, deposited onto formvar coated, carbon backed 200 mesh copper grids and observed
 195 unstained in a Phillips EM410 transmission electron microscope at an operating voltage of 80
 196 KeV.

197 To visualize the impact of ZnO nanoparticles on *C. fetus* cell morphology, 10^9 CFU/mL
 198 bacteria were exposed to $500 \mu\text{g/mL}$ ZnO for 4 h at 37°C . Nanoparticles were removed by
 199 washing in 0.05 M HEPES (N-2-hydroxyethylpiperazine-N'-2-ethanesulfonic acid; Research
 200 Organics) buffer, pH 6.8, and pelleted cells were enrobed in 2% Noble agar. Bacteria were
 201 fixed in HEPES buffer containing 2% glutaraldehyde and 2.5% p-formaldehyde and processed
 202 for thin section transmission electron microscopy as described (Graham and Beveridge 1990).

203 *Campylobacter fetus* was also processed using freeze-substitution in 2% osmium tetroxide and
204 2% uranyl acetate in anhydrous acetone as described (Graham and Beveridge 1990). Thin
205 sections were stained with 2% uranyl acetate and Reynolds lead citrate prior to viewing.

206 **Statistical analysis.** Differences in bacterial cell survival between S layer expressing and S
207 layer deficient *C. fetus* strains were assessed using a multi-way analysis of variance (ANOVA)
208 with a post-hoc Bonferoni test followed by a pair-wise comparison of sample means. Pooled
209 bacterial count data were not normally distributed as determined using a one sample
210 Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. As such, data were log transformed prior to ANOVA analysis.
211 Statistical significance was assessed at a $p \leq 0.05$. Statistical analysis was performed using
212 Systat 7.1.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL).

213

214 RESULTS

215 ZnO nanoparticles are bacteriocidal for *C. fetus*.

216 Transmission electron microscopy of commercially acquired ZnO nanoparticles revealed
217 a range of particle size and morphology (Fig. 1). Despite this variation, kill curves indicated a
218 concentration dependent decrease in cell viability for all bacterial strains assessed during a 6 h
219 exposure to ZnO nanoparticles (Fig. 2). After 24 h exposure, no viable bacteria were recovered,
220 indicating that ZnO nanoparticles are bacteriocidal for *C. fetus* and *C. jejuni*. In contrast, control
221 bacteria incubated in the absence of ZnO nanoparticles remained viable throughout the assay and
222 were recovered at 24 h. No difference ($p \geq 0.05$) in bacterial cell viability was noted between
223 wild type and corresponding isogenic S layer deficient *C. fetus* strain at any nanoparticle
224 concentration. In agar dilution assays, *C. fetus* growth was observed at ZnO nanoparticle
225 concentrations of 0 – 50 $\mu\text{g/mL}$; no growth was observed for any *C. fetus* strain inoculated onto

226 CA-MH agar containing 100 µg/mL ZnO (data not shown). *C. jejuni* growth was inhibited at 50
227 and 100 µg/mL ZnO. Together, these results indicate that ZnO nanoparticles are bacteriocidal
228 for *C. fetus*.

229 The antibacterial activity observed in both broth and agar dilution assays was reflected in
230 the morphology of *C. fetus* cells exposed to nanoparticles. Transmission electron microscopy
231 showed zinc oxide-exposed cells with altered envelope morphology including variable distance
232 between plasma and outer membranes, increased membrane waviness and gaps in cytoplasmic
233 contents (Fig. 3). In contrast, unexposed control cells displayed smooth envelope profiles and
234 evenly distributed cytoplasmic contents.

235 **Photoactivation enhances ZnO nanoparticle activity towards *C. fetus*.**

236 To determine whether photoactivation would increase the bacteriocidal activity of ZnO
237 nanoparticles towards *C. fetus*, MBC assays were performed in duplicate 96 well plates in which
238 one plate received a 30 minute light exposure while the replicate plate was incubated
239 continuously in the dark (Fig. 4). MBC values ≥ 125 µg/mL were observed for all *C. fetus* strains
240 incubated with ZnO nanoparticles in the dark. When cells received a 30 minute light exposure,
241 MBC values decreased to 16 – 62.5 µg/mL. Catalase enhanced bacterial resistance to
242 photoactivated ZnO nanoparticles, in some cases restoring MBC levels to those observed in dark
243 incubated cells, indicating that H₂O₂ generation contributes to *C. fetus* cell death. For bacteria
244 incubated with ZnO nanoparticles in the dark, the presence or absence of catalase had no impact
245 on MBC values. Interestingly, MBC values were lower for S layer deficient *C. fetus* strains than
246 for wild type S layer expressing strains when cells were incubated with photoactivated zinc oxide
247 nanoparticles. In contrast, neither photoactivation nor the presence of catalase impacted the
248 recovery of *C. jejuni* exposed to ZnO nanoparticles. These data indicate that light enhances the

249 antibacterial activity of ZnO nanoparticles towards *C. fetus* and that the S layer imparts
250 resistance to this antibacterial activity.

251 Some bacteria including *C. jejuni*, may exist in a viable but non-culturable (VBNC) state
252 in which metabolic activity is detectable despite an absence of cell growth (Li et al. 2014;
253 Portner et al. 2007; Zhao et al. 2017). To exclude the possibility that *C. fetus* remained viable
254 despite the absence of colony growth on agar, *C. fetus* cells exposed to ZnO nanoparticles for 24
255 h were also assessed for their ability to reduce resazurin as an indicator of cell metabolism (Fig.
256 5). Resazurin reduction results mirrored MBC assays – when no viable bacteria were recovered
257 in plating assays, resazurin reduction was $\leq 50\%$ (metabolic activity was defined as resazurin
258 reduction levels of $\geq 50\%$; Pettit et al. 2005). *C. fetus* retained the ability to reduce resazurin in
259 the presence of greater ZnO nanoparticle concentrations when bacteria were incubated in the
260 dark compared to cells receiving a 30 minute light exposure. As observed in MBC assays, the
261 presence of catalase did not impact resazurin reduction for dark incubated cells but did
262 ameliorate the inhibition observed in light exposed cells (Fig. 5, compare Light versus Light +
263 cat). For *C. jejuni*, percent resazurin reduction was only impacted by ZnO nanoparticle
264 concentration, neither light exposure nor catalase altered the levels of resazurin reduction.

265 **Discussion**

266 As the outermost component of the prokaryotic cell envelope, S layers are uniquely
267 positioned to interface between the cell and its immediate environment. S layers have been
268 shown to protect against a number of environmental threats including *Bdellovibrio bacteriovorus*
269 predation (Koval 1993; Koval and Hynes 1991), bacteriophage (Ishiguro et al. 1981), the
270 bacteriocidal action of complement proteins (Blaser et al. 1988; Munn et al. 1982), and recently
271 cationic antimicrobial peptides (de la Fuente-Núñez et al. 2012). Here, we compared the impact

272 of ZnO nanoparticles on wild type S layer expressing and isogenic S layer deficient mutants and
273 show that not only is *C. fetus* sensitive to these nanoparticles, but also that the *C. fetus* S layer
274 provides protection from H₂O₂ generated during photoactivation of ZnO nanoparticles.

275 Zinc oxide nanoparticles of various shape and size exhibit antimicrobial activity against a
276 broad range of gram positive and negative bacteria (reviewed in Kumar et al. 2017). Kill curves
277 and agar dilution assays reveal that ZnO nanoparticles at 100 µg/mL are bacteriocidal for *C. fetus*
278 as control bacteria cultured in the absence of nanoparticles remained viable. The dose dependent
279 reduction in cell viability observed here for *C. fetus* exposed to ZnO nanoparticles, has been
280 reported for other *Campylobacter* species, including *C. jejuni* (Xie et al. 2011) and *C. coli* (Bratz
281 et al. 2013). For *C. jejuni*, MIC values range from 25 – 290 µg/mL ZnO nanoparticles as a
282 function of strain (Liedtke and Vahjenn 2012; Xie et al. 2011). And although *C. jejuni* cultured
283 as a biofilm was more resistant to ZnO nanoparticles than were planktonic cells, ZnO
284 nanoparticles were bacteriocidal following a 10 h exposure at 1.2 mmol (100 µg/mL), regardless
285 of growth format (Lu et al. 2012). Growth of *C. coli* 5981 was significantly reduced after 24 h
286 exposure to 200 µg/mL ZnO powder, though some cells remained viable at 24 h in the presence
287 of 500 µg/mL ZnO (Bratz et al. 2013). Other enteric gram negative bacteria, including *E. coli*
288 O157:H7, have MIC values of at least 400 µg/mL ZnO nanoparticles (Xie et al. 2011) and like *C.*
289 *coli*, some cells may even remain viable at these concentrations (Liu et al. 2009).

290 *C. fetus* sensitivity to ZnO nanoparticles was reflected in changes in cell morphology.
291 TEM of ZnO exposed *C. fetus* revealed spiral shaped cells with enlarged periplasm and wavy
292 membranes. Exposure of *C. jejuni* to 500 µg/mL ZnO nanoparticles for 12 h resulted in a change
293 from spiral to coccal morphology, a form associated with a VBNC state (Xie et al. 2011). No
294 switch to the coccal form was observed for *C. fetus*. Levels of resazurin reduction were

295 correlated with the killing observed in MBC assays. Thus, we found no evidence to suggest that
296 ZnO nanoparticles induce a VBNC state in *C. fetus*, rather, ZnO nanoparticles are bacteriocidal
297 for *C. fetus*.

298 The antibacterial activity of ZnO nanoparticles has been linked to disruption of cell
299 membranes (Xie et al. 2011), toxicity due to the release of Zn²⁺ ions (Pasquet et al. 2014) and the
300 production of ROS. Any of these mechanisms could be responsible for the bacteriocidal activity
301 observed when *C. fetus* was incubated with ZnO nanoparticles in the dark. Aqueous
302 suspensions of ZnO nanoparticles incubated in the dark generate hydroxyl radicals (OH[•]) (He et
303 al. 2016; Lipovsky et al. 2009) as well as superoxide (•O²⁻) and H₂O₂ (Prasanna and
304 Vijayaraghavan 2015; Sawai et al. 1998). Exposure of aqueous ZnO suspensions to UV or
305 visible light increases production of these ROS (Lipovsky et al. 2009; Prasanna and
306 Vijayaraghavan 2015). In the current study, photoactivation dramatically enhanced the
307 bacteriocidal activity of ZnO nanoparticles. For all *C. fetus* strains, MBC values were lowest
308 when bacteria were incubated with ZnO nanoparticles and had been exposed to light. The
309 addition of catalase reduced this light enhanced killing effect, suggesting that H₂O₂ is a major
310 contributor to *C. fetus* cell death. Though H₂O₂ is not as reactive as the other ROS (Blake et al.
311 1999), H₂O₂ can oxidize unsaturated phospholipids in cell membranes, thereby decreasingly
312 membrane fluidity and altering membrane properties (Cabiscol et al. 2000; Sawai et al. 1998).
313 And if intracellular, in the presence of metal ions such as Fe²⁺ and Mn²⁺, H₂O₂ is readily
314 converted to highly reactive •OH via the Fenton reaction (Lemire et al. 2013). In response to
315 ZnO nanoparticle exposure, both *C. jejuni* and *C. coli* have demonstrated up regulation of stress
316 response genes including *kataA* (which encodes catalase, an enzyme which degrades H₂O₂)
317 implying a role for ROS, specifically H₂O₂, in cell killing (Bratz et al. 2013; Xie et al. 2011). *C.*

318 *jejuni* lacks an S layer and was hypothesized to react to ZnO nanoparticles in a manner similar to
319 S layer deficient *C. fetus* strains. In our hands, however, photoactivation did not enhance ZnO
320 nanoparticle action against *C. jejuni*, nor did the presence of catalase ameliorate cell death,
321 suggesting that unlike *C. fetus*, H₂O₂ may not be a major contributor to ZnO nanoparticle
322 induced *C. jejuni* cell death.

323 Given the variation in size and shape of the commercially acquired ZnO nanoparticles, it
324 is not possible to state that the *C. fetus* S layer physically excluded nanoparticles from directly
325 interacting with cell membranes. And for bacteria exposed to ZnO nanoparticles in the dark we
326 did not observe any difference in susceptibility between S layer expressing and S layer deficient
327 *C. fetus* strains. S layer expressing strains were however, found to be more resistant to
328 photoactivated ZnO nanoparticles than were S layer deficient *C. fetus* strains. Arrangement of
329 protein monomers into a lattice array with regularly spaced pores of defined size, enables S
330 layers to function as permeability barriers, filtering according to size and even charge (Beveridge
331 and Graham 1991). Charge interactions between negatively charged amino acids in the
332 *Caulobacter crescentus* S layer and positively charged cationic antimicrobial peptides were
333 proposed to prevent the peptides from reaching the bacterial outer membrane, thereby protecting
334 *C. crescentus* cells (de la Fuente-Núñez, et al. 2012). Although all of the ROS generated from
335 ZnO nanoparticles would be S layer permeable based upon size, the net negative charge of the *C.*
336 *fetus* S layer (Blaser and Gotschlich 1990) would likely repel negatively charged hydroxyl
337 radicals and superoxide anions. Hydrogen peroxide in contrast, is uncharged and could readily
338 traverse the S layer. For *C. fetus* VC119, S layer subunits were estimated to be 11 nm in height
339 (Dubreuil et al. 1990) and would thus position the S layer away from the underlying cell surface.
340 In *C. fetus* 809, the S layer is also visible external to the underlying outer membrane (Fig. 3A).

341 The distance between S layer and outer membrane may be significant. When ZnO nanoparticles
342 interact with the S layer, H₂O₂ generated may oxidize S layer protein monomers directly or LPS
343 polymers residing beneath the S layer, essentially quenching H₂O₂ reactivity. These “off-target”
344 reactions would reduce the amount of H₂O₂ accessing cell membranes and cytoplasm. In the
345 absence of the S layer, nanoparticles themselves could penetrate deeper into the cell envelope,
346 i.e., to the outer membrane surface, and the ROS generated in closer proximity to cell
347 membranes could incur more cell damage. As ROS including H₂O₂ are produced in greater
348 concentrations during light exposure (Manna 2012), the S layer barrier effect is more apparent in
349 light exposed than in dark incubated bacteria. At elevated ZnO nanoparticle concentrations (i.e.,
350 > 100 µg/mL), damage due to ROS or other killing mechanisms would be extensive and likely
351 exceed quenching capacity thus negating the benefit of S layer expression. Other cell envelope
352 layers including capsules exhibit similar barrier qualities. The extracellular polymeric substance
353 expressed on *Rothia mucilaginosa* Ora-16, an emerging opportunistic oral pathogen, protected
354 these cells from killing with ZnO nanoparticles compared to cells lacking this envelope layer
355 (Khan et al. 2014). Similarly, exopolysaccharides protected *Bacillus subtilis* from ZnO
356 nanoparticle toxicity (Hsueh et al. 2015). *C. jejuni* 81-176 also expresses capsular
357 polysaccharide (Bacon et al. 2001) and this envelope component may have protected cells from
358 the impact of photoactivation in the current study.

359 Although the difference in MBC values for *C. fetus* exposed to photoactivated ZnO
360 nanoparticles in the presence and absence of catalase implicates H₂O₂ in cell killing, this does
361 not preclude killing via the other proposed mechanisms of ZnO activity, including Zn²⁺ ion
362 toxicity. Although not addressed in the current study, free Zn²⁺ ions may bind acidic amino
363 acids in the *C. fetus* S layer (Blaser and Gotschlich 1990) or displace the divalent cations which

364 mediate *C. fetus* S layer attachment to underlying LPS (Yang et al. 1992). Either binding
365 mechanism would reduce the amount of free Zn^{2+} reaching the cytoplasm, thereby reducing
366 toxicity. Though at elevated ZnO nanoparticle concentrations (i.e., $>100 \mu\text{g/mL}$) free Zn^{2+} ions
367 would saturate the cell surface and any protective benefit provided by the S layer would be lost.

368 In conclusion, we have shown that zinc oxide nanoparticles are bacteriocidal for *C. fetus*
369 and that this antibacterial activity is greatly enhanced following photoactivation. Hydrogen
370 peroxide contributes to the bacteriocidal activity generated during photoactivation. S layer
371 expressing strains are more resistant to this H_2O_2 mediated killing than are S layer deficient
372 strains indicating a protective role for this cell envelope component. As the interface between
373 the bacterial cell and its environment, the S layer is ideally positioned to provide this barrier
374 function.

375

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Figure legends

- 548 **Figure legends**
549
550 Figure 1. Unstained, whole mount of zinc oxide nanoparticles observed using transmission
551 electron microscopy. Bar represents 500 nm.
- 552 Figure 2. Impact of zinc oxide nanoparticles on *C. fetus*. Bacteria were incubated with ZnO
553 nanoparticles and bacterial survival determined hourly using viable plate counts. Data
554 is shown as the mean + SD of 3 separate experiments performed on different days. No
555 difference ($p \geq 0.05$) in bacterial survival was noted between wild type and
556 corresponding S layer deficient *C. fetus* strain at any nanoparticle concentration. **Cff**,
557 *Campylobacter fetus* subsp. *fetus*; **Cfv**, *Campylobacter fetus* subsp. *venerealis*. **Cj**,
558 *Campylobacter jejuni*. S layer deficient strains are indicated by the letter “K”
559 following the strain number.
- 560 Figure 3. Thin section transmission electron micrographs of *C. fetus*. **(A)** Freeze-substituted *C.*
561 *fetus* 809. Arrow indicates the S layer. Bar represents 100 nm. **(B)** *C. fetus* 13783
562 incubated in the absence of ZnO nanoparticles and processed by conventional fixation.
563 Bar represents 500 nm. **(C)** *C. fetus* 13783 exposed to 500 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ ZnO nanoparticles
564 for 4 h in the dark and processed by conventional fixation. Bar represents 500 nm.
- 565 Figure 4. Photoactivation enhances ZnO nanoparticle activity towards *C. fetus*. MBC assays
566 were conducted in duplicate 96 well plates incubated at 37°C under microaerobic
567 conditions. Following bacterial inoculation, one plate was incubated in the dark
568 (**Dark**) and the duplicate plate was exposed to visible light for 30 min (**Light**) prior to
569 incubation in the dark. Catalase (4 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) was included in replicate wells (**Dark +**
570 **catalase**; **Light + catalase**). After 24 h exposure to ZnO nanoparticles, surviving
571 bacteria were enumerated using viable plate counts. Data is presented as the mean +

572 SD of at least 2 independent assays conducted on different days. **Cff**, *C. fetus* subsp.
573 *fetus*; **Cfv**, *C. fetus* subsp. *venerealis*; **Cj**, *C. jejuni*. S layer deficient strains are
574 indicated by the letter “K” following the strain number.

575 Figure 5. Zinc oxide nanoparticles inhibit bacterial metabolic activity. Resazurin reduction, an
576 indicator of cell metabolic activity, was assessed after 24 h exposure to ZnO
577 nanoparticles. Data shown is representative of 2 replicate assays. Dark bars indicate
578 loss of metabolic activity ($\leq 50\%$ resazurin reduction). Grey bars indicate residual
579 metabolic activity.

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Table 1. Bacterial strains used in this study.

Species, strain	Relevant Characteristics	Source or Reference
<i>Campylobacter fetus</i> subsp. <i>fetus</i> 13783	Human blood isolate; S layer expressing	F. Rogers, NML*, Winnipeg, Canada
11686	Human blood isolate; S layer expressing	F. Rogers, NML, Winnipeg, Canada
13783K	S layer deficient <i>C. fetus</i> 13783, Km ^r †	Graham et al., 2008
11686K	S layer deficient <i>C. fetus</i> 11686, Km ^r	Graham et al., 2008
<i>Campylobacter fetus</i> subsp. <i>venerealis</i> 809	Human blood isolate; S layer expressing	D.E. Taylor, U. Alberta, Edmonton, Canada
809K	S layer deficient <i>C. fetus</i> 809, Km ^r	Graham and MacDonald, 1998
<i>Campylobacter jejuni</i> subsp. <i>jejuni</i> 81-176	Human diarrhea isolate	B.B. Finlay, U. British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada

*NML, National Microbiology Laboratory

†Km^r, kanamycin resistant

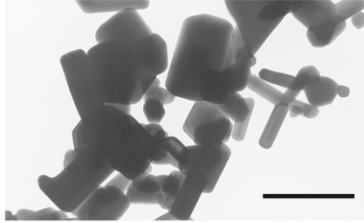


Figure 1. Unstained, whole mount of zinc oxide nanoparticles observed using transmission electron microscopy. Bar represents 500 nm.

215x279mm (300 x 300 DPI)

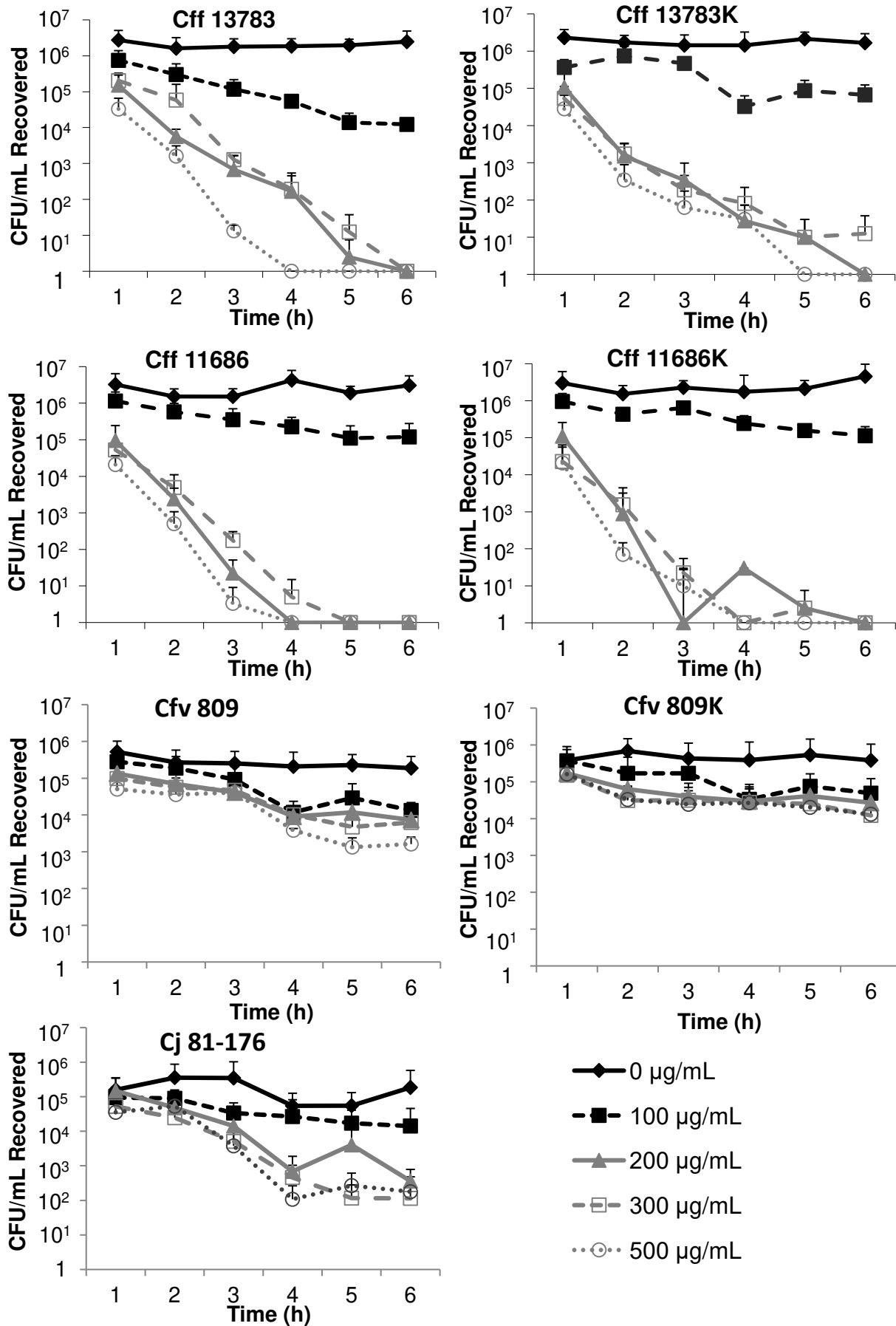


Figure 2. Impact of zinc oxide nanoparticles on *C. fetus*. Bacteria were incubated with ZnO nanoparticles and bacterial survival determined hourly using viable plate counts. Data is shown as the mean + SD of 3 separate experiments performed on different days. No difference ($p \geq 0.05$) in bacterial survival was noted between wild type and corresponding S layer deficient *C. fetus* strain at any nanoparticle concentration. Cff, *Campylobacter fetus* subsp. *fetus*; Cfv, *Campylobacter fetus* subsp. *venerealis*. Cj, *Campylobacter jejuni*. S layer deficient strains are indicated by the letter “K” following the strain number.

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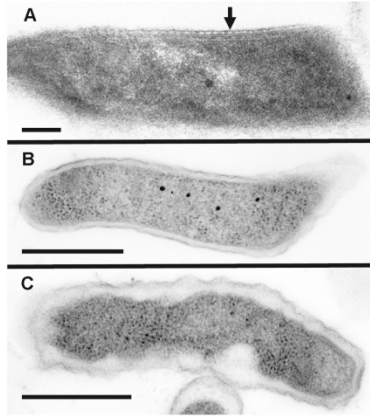


Figure 3. Thin section transmission electron micrographs of *C. fetus*. (A) Freeze-substituted *C. fetus* 809. Arrow indicates the S layer. Bar represents 100 nm. (B) *C. fetus* 13783 incubated in the absence of ZnO nanoparticles and processed by conventional fixation. Bar represents 500 nm. (C) *C. fetus* 13783 exposed to 500 µg/mL ZnO nanoparticles for 4 h in the dark and processed by conventional fixation. Bar represents 500 nm.

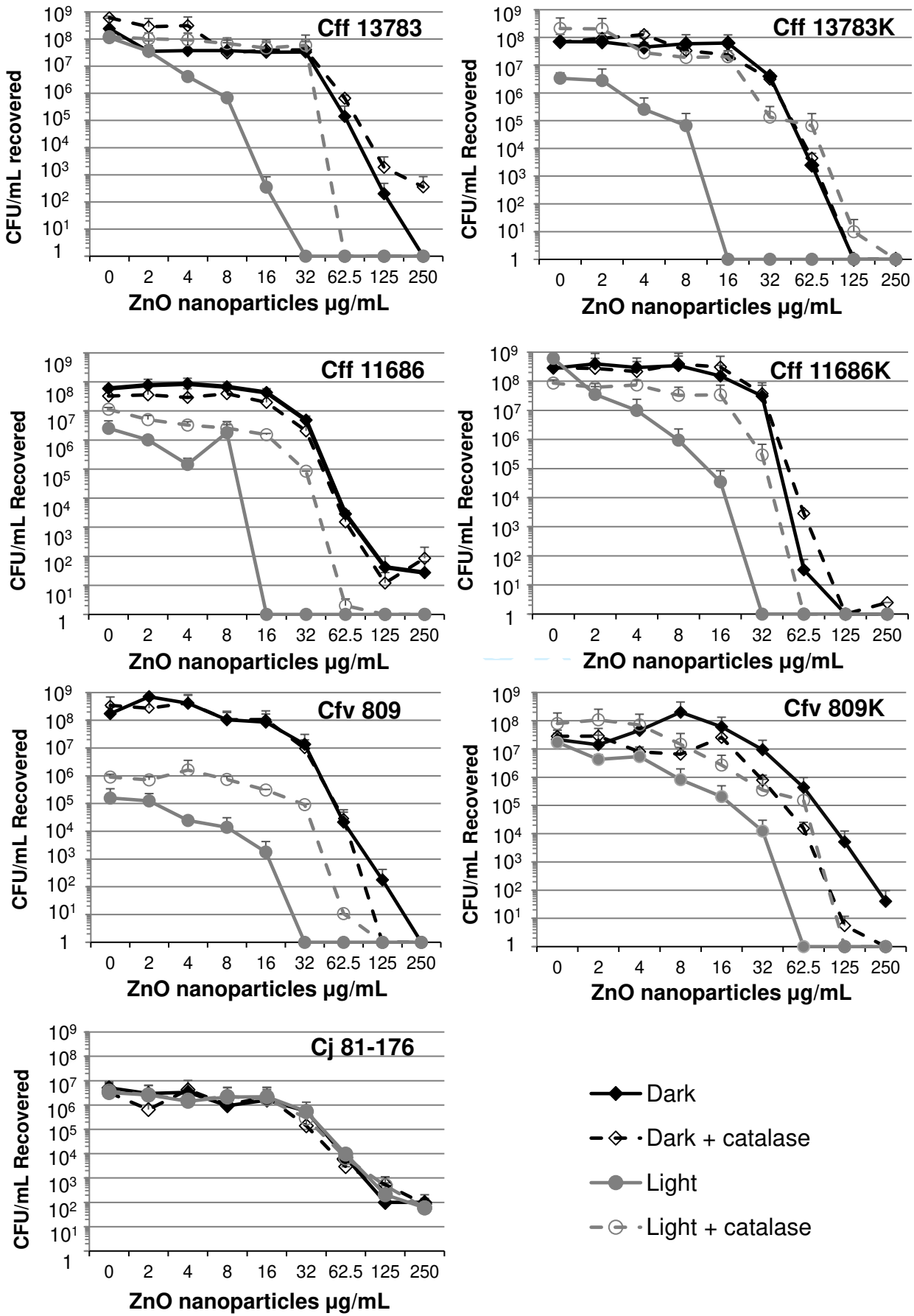


Figure 4. Photoactivation enhances ZnO nanoparticle activity towards *C. fetus*. MBC assays were conducted in duplicate 96 well plates incubated at 37°C under microaerobic conditions. Following bacterial inoculation, one plate was incubated in the dark (Dark) and the duplicate plate was exposed to visible light for 30 min (Light) prior to incubation in the dark. Catalase (4 µg/mL) was included in replicate wells (Dark + catalase; Light + catalase). After 24 h exposure to ZnO nanoparticles, surviving bacteria were enumerated using viable plate counts. Data is presented as the mean + SD of at least 2 independent assays conducted on different days. Cff, *C. fetus* subsp. *fetus*; Cfv, *C. fetus* subsp. *venerealis*; Cj, *C. jejuni*. S layer deficient strains are indicated by the letter “K” following the strain number.

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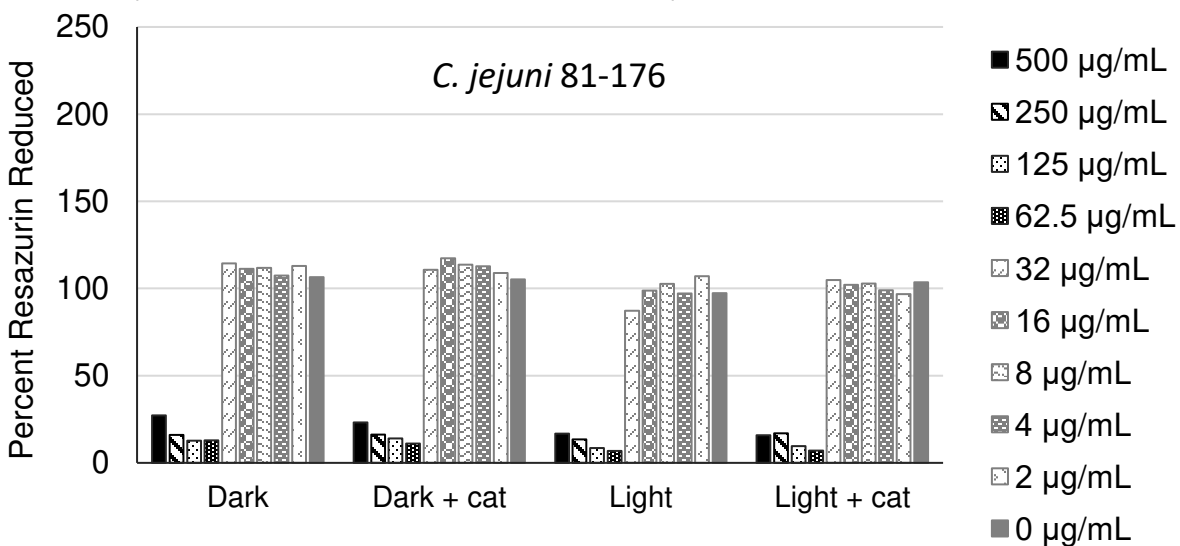
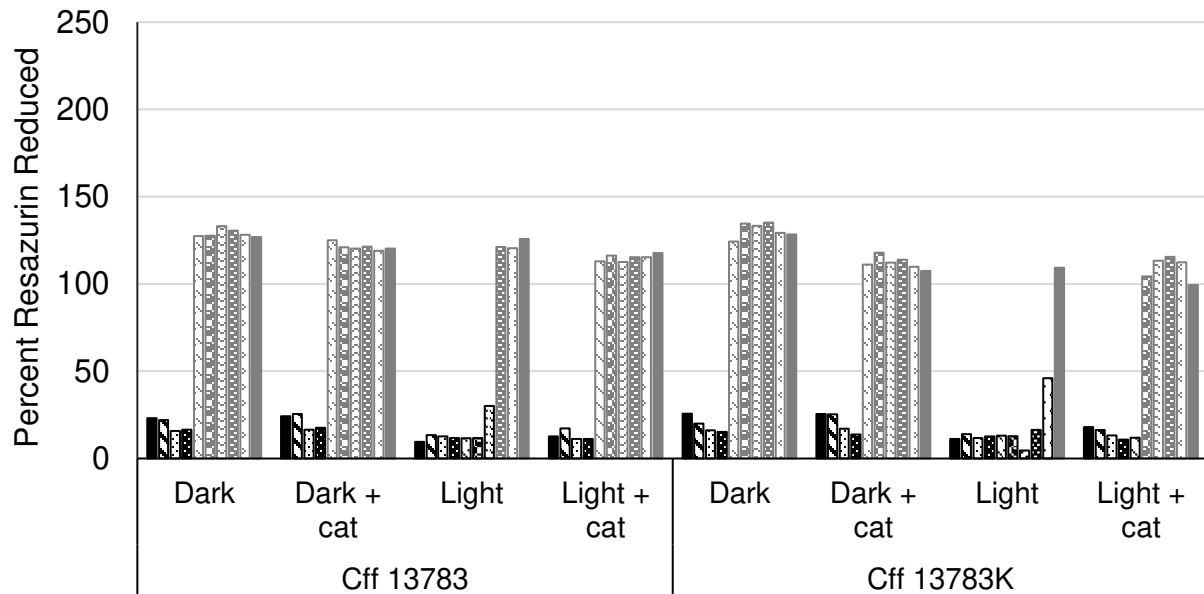
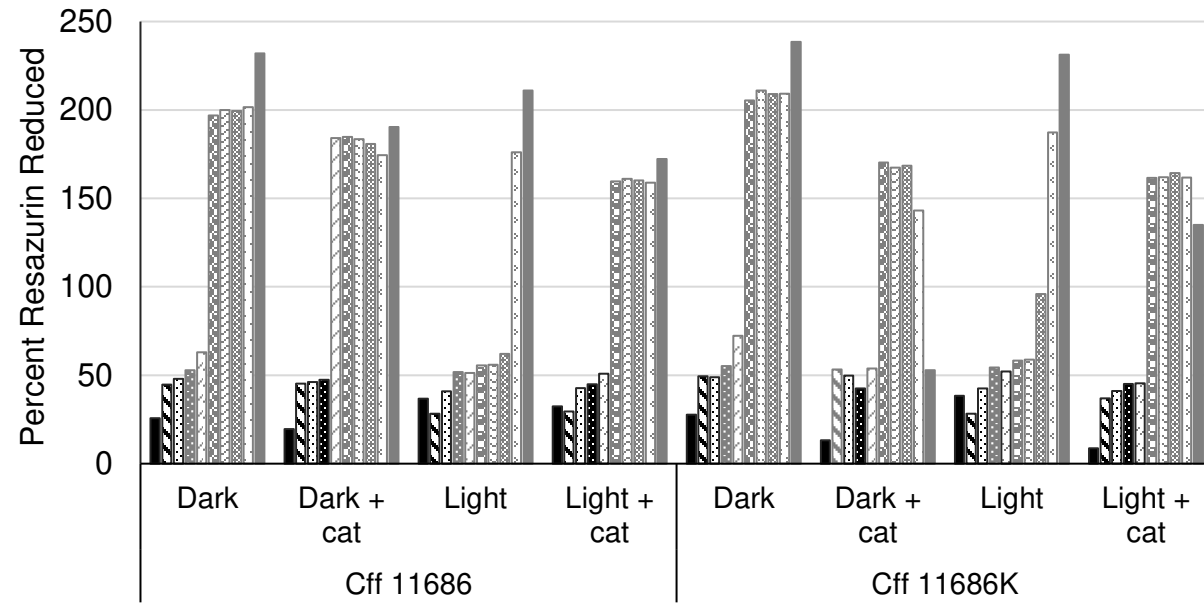


Figure 5. Zinc oxide nanoparticles inhibit bacterial metabolic activity. Resazurin reduction, an indicator of cell metabolic activity, was assessed after 24 h exposure to ZnO nanoparticles. Data shown is representative of 2 replicate assays. Dark bars indicate loss of metabolic activity ($\leq 50\%$ resazurin reduction). Grey bars indicate residual metabolic activity. Legend numbers in $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$.

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