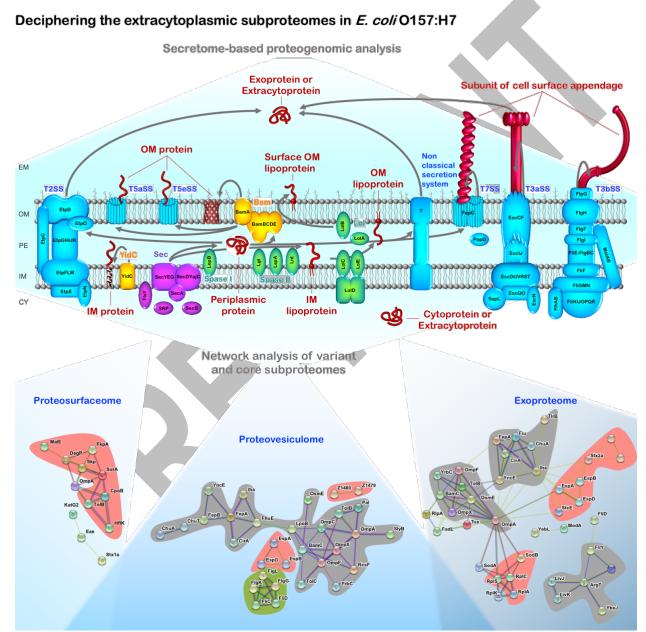
- 1 The Secretome Landscape of Escherichia coli O157:H7: Deciphering the Cell-Surface, Outer
- 2 Membrane Vesicle and Extracellular Subproteomes
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- 6 GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



8 The Secretome Landscape of *Escherichia coli* O157:H7:

Deciphering the Cell-Surface, Outer Membrane Vesicle and

Extracellular Subproteomes

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Abstract

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- Among diarrheagenic E. coli (DEC), enterohaemorrhagic E. coli (EHEC) are the most virulent anthropozoonotic agents. The ability of bacterial cells to functionally interact with their surrounding essentially relies on the secretion of different protein effectors. To experimentally determine the repertoire of extracytoproteins in E. coli O157:H7, a subproteomic analysis was performed not only considering the extracellular milieu but the cell surface and outer membrane vesicles. Following a secretome-based approach, the proteins trafficking from the interior to the exterior of the cell were depicted considering cognate protein transport systems and subcellular localisation. Label-free quantitative analysis of the proteosurfaceome, proteovesiculome and exoproteome from E. coli O157:H7 grown in three different nutrient media revealed differential protein expression profiles and allowed defining the core and variant subproteomes. Network analysis further revealed the higher abundance of some protein clusters in chemically defined medium over rich complex medium, especially related to some outer membrane proteins, ABC transport and Type III secretion systems. This first comprehensive study of the EHEC secretome unravels the profound influence of environmental conditions on the extracytoplasmic proteome, provides new insight in the physiology of E. coli O157:H7 and identifies potentially important molecular targets for the development of preventive strategies against EHEC/STEC.
- 41 **Keywords:** Shiga toxin-producing *E. coli* (STEC); Subproteomic analysis; Secretome; Outer
- 42 membrane vesicle; Cell-surface proteins; Extracellular proteins

Introduction

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Escherichia coli are an inhabitant of warm-blooded animals intestines and typically coexist with the host as a commensal with mutual benefit for both organisms [1]. However, some highly adapted E. coli strains have acquired specific virulence attributes, which allow them causing a broad spectrum of diseases. Based on clinical syndromes, these pathogenic strains can be discriminated into extraintestinal pathogenic E. coli (ExPEC) responsible for urinary tract infections, sepsis and/or meningitis [2] and intestinal pathogenic E. coli (InPEC), especially the diarrheagenic E. coli (DEC) subset. DEC represent a leading cause for traveller's diarrhoea but also pediatric disease in developing countries, and an emerging source of diarrhoea in industrialised countries [3]. Enterohaemorrhagic E. coli (EHEC), which belong to the group of shigatoxin encoding E. coli (STEC), are the most severe etiologic agent for E. coli diarrhoea in humans, with a wide spectrum of diseases ranging from aqueous or bloody diarrhoea to severe cases of haemorrhagic colitis to haemolytic uremic syndrome (HUS), the leading cause of chronic renal failure in children [4, 5]. Over the 400 distinct serotypes of STEC reported to date [6], only a handful of serogroups are reported in human outbreaks [7], included EHEC O157:H7 considered as one of the most severe [8].

While shigatoxin (Stx) is regarded as the main virulence factor for EHEC, it is neither essential in DEC nor sufficient in EHEC. Actually, the ability of EHEC to colonise the intestinal epithelial surface would also be a major factor in tuning the virulence level and thus the severity of the infection, *e.g.* the attaching and effacing lesions (A/E lesions) [9, 10]. Most of the genes necessary to form A/E lesions are encoded by a 35-kb chromosomal pathogenicity island (PAI) known as the locus for enterocyte effacement (LEE), particularly genes encoding a Type III, subtype a, secretion system (T3aSS) and the cognate effector proteins [11, 12]. Besides infection,

some virulence factors could play a role as niche factors in various environmental conditions encounters by bacterial cells along the food chain [13, 14], from soil, plants, animal carriage, food matrices to human gastrointestinal tract when considering EHEC [15, 16]. While the main secreted virulence factors are now well characterised in EHEC O157:H7 [17-19], additional genes are most probably induced in the course of an infection [20] but their expression at a protein level and in other environmental conditions remain elusive. In lipopolysaccharidic (LPS) diderm bacteria (i.e. archetypal Gram-negative bacteria) [21], nine protein secretion systems, from Type I to Type IX (T1SS-T9SS) have been uncovered to date but, surprisingly enough, some proteins can be found as localised extracellularly without any obvious cognate secretion pathways. Such transport via unknown protein trafficking route is referred as non-classical secretion (NCS) [22, 23], where different molecular mechanisms can be at play, e.g. controlled lysis, piggybacking or outer membrane vesicles (OMVs) [24-26]. As secretion refers to the active transport from the interior to the exterior of the cell compartment [21], secreted proteins can have four main possible fates in LPS-diderm bacteria, i.e. to (i) remain associated with the bacterial outer membrane (OM), (ii) be released into the extracellular milieu, (iii) be vectorised in OMVs, or (iv) be injected into a target cell (either a eukaryotic or bacterial cell) [27, 28]. Environmental growth conditions are known to influence the secretion of some classically and non-classically secreted proteins in E. coli O157:H7 [29], however, the occurrence at a global secretome scale remains to be explored. Considering the poor correlation between mRNA and protein abundance, which is even more exacerbated when dealing with secreted proteins [30-32], proteomics is a pre-request to functional analyses.

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Growth conditions are known to deeply influence the physiology of *E. coli* O157:H7, for instance in the ability to adhere to different extracellular matrix components [33], the adherence to intestinal epithelial cells [34, 35] or the virulence with the LEE expression [36, 37]. However,

there is still a gap of knowledge in apprehending the whole proteins secreted by E. coli O157:H7. For some times, the investigations of the extracellular proteome (exoproteome) were often restricted to the use of chemically defined medium due to the limit imposed by two-dimensional electrophoresis (2-DE) approaches, especially with the isoelectric focusing (IEF) in the first dimension, and the access to the cell-surface proteome (proteosurfaceome) proven difficult especially due to the hydrophobicity of outer membrane proteins (OMPs). Nowadays, the development of shotgun off-gel proteomics has clearly exceeded in-gel 2-DE approaches to circumvent these limitations, together with cell-surface biotin labelling to efficiently investigate the proteosurfaceome [38, 39]. The present study aims at deciphering the secretome landscape of E. coli O157:H7 by using a range of growth media most likely or known to induce changes in the protein secretion profiles, namely (i) M9 as a minimal medium forcing the bacterial cell to activate its full anabolic potential, (ii) DMEM (Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium) as a chemically defined medium known to induce the expression of several virulence factors, and (iii) BHI (brain heart infusion) as a rich complex medium classically use for the growth of microbial pathogens. To get a whole picture of proteins secreted by E. coli O157:H7, three subproteomes were considered and characterised by relative quantification analysis, namely the proteosurfaceome (proteome of the cell surface), exoproteome (proteome of the extracellular milieu) and proteovesiculome (proteome of the membrane vesicles).

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Material and Methods

Bacterial growth conditions

Escherichia coli O157:H7 strain EDL933 was used for this study [40]. Pre-cultures were grown aerobically in M9, DMEM (Dulbecco's modified eagle medium, Gibco), or BHI (brain-heart infusion, Becton-Dickinson) liquid media at 37°C under orbital shaking (150 rpm) in triplicates. After 1:100 (v/v) dilution, bacterial cultures were grown in the same conditions until late exponential phase and sampled at about 3, 5 and 8 h from BHI, DMEM and M9, respectively. Samples corresponded to the same OD 600 nm (0.5) and bacterial cells were harvested by centrifugation (4 000 g, 5 min, 4°C) and the culture supernatant recovered.

Isolation of bacterial cell-surface, outer membrane vesicule, and extracellular

proteins

Bacterial cell-surface proteins were isolated following biotinylation and protein affinity purification as previsouly described in details [39] using sulfo-NHS-SS-biotin (sulfo-succinimidyl biotin-amidoethyl dithio-propionate) for protein labelling and netravidin for purification. Briefly, bacterial cells were washed with 10 mM PBS pH 80 containing 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF) and centrifuged as above. Pelleted cells were weighed to ensure the same amount of wet cells (100 mg) was labelled with sulfo-NHS-SS-biotin (1.5 mM) for 1 min at room temperature. After quenching the excess of biotinylation reagent with glycine buffer (500 mM) and centrifugation, cells were resuspended in Triton X-100 lysis buffer (1 %, 1 mM PMSF, 10 mM PBS pH 8). Cells were disrupted using FastPrep-24 classic (MP Biomedicals) with two steps of 20 s at 6 m/s, cell debris discarded by centrifugation (20 000 g, 30 min, 4°C) and exactly the same volume of each biotinylated protein samples (500 μl) was load for affinity purification using neutravidin agarose resin (Pierce Thermo Scientific, 400 μl). After washing (10 mM PBS, pH 8,

80 mM dithiothreitol, 62.5 mM Tris-HCl). Recovery of OMV and extracellular proteins were adapted from previously described protocols [41]. Briefly, the same volume of culture supernatant corresponding to the same amount of bacterial cells was first filtered through a 0.45 μm membrane under vacuum (to eliminate residual cells), and ultrafiltrated on a polyethersulfone (PES) membrane at a 500 kDa cut-off (to concentrate the supernanant); the ultrafiltrate was kept and corresponded to the extracellular fraction, whereas the retentate was further processed to get the OMV fraction. In the ultrafiltrate, 0.2 mM PMSF was added to inhibit protease activity as well as sodium deoxycholate (0.2 mg.mL $^{-1}$) to support protein precipitation with trichloroacetic acid (10 % w/v). After centrifugation (20 000 g, 30 min, 4°C), the precipitate was washed with ice-cold acetone and all samples were solubilised in the same volume of PBS. The retentate was further ultracentrifuged (100 000 g, 3 h, 4°C) and all samples were resuspended in the same volume of PBS. Protein concentration was determined by the method of Bradford using bovine serum albumin as the standard [34].

1 % NP-40), labelled proteins were eluted (2 % SDS, 20 % glycerol, 5 % β-mercaptoethanol,

Protein preparation for LC-MS/MS analysis

To avoid bias in the comparison of protein abundance by relative quantification analyses, the bacterial cell surface, extracellular milieu and OMV fractions, respectively, were adjusted respective to the same amount of biomass in the different growth conditions as indicated above. To eliminate interfering molecules (such as salts) and concentrate proteins in a single band of polyacrylamide gel, each sample was submitted to a short SDS-PAGE (sodium dodecyl sulfate–polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis) migration (T=12.5 %, C= 3.3%) in a BioRad Mini Protean II unit. After the addition of the same volume of Laemmli buffer (2 % SDS, 25 % glycerol, 5 % β-

mercaptoethanol, 0.005 % bromphenol blue and 62.5 mM Tris-HCl, final) and heating at 95°C for 5 min, 15 µl of protein extracts from each subcellular fraction were migrated and just allowed to concentrate at the junction between stacking and resolving gel after a few minutes migration (25 mA/gel at 100 V). Gel was then stained with Coomassie Brilliant Blue G250 and the single bands in each lane were excised. The proteins in the gel were reduced in 100 mM ammonium bicarbonate with 45 mM dithiothreitol for 45 min at 50°C, and alkylated with 100 mM iodoacetamide for 20 min at room temperature in the dark. The gel was washed once in 25 mM ammonium bicarbonate in 5 % acetonitrile for 30 min and twice in 25 mM ammonium bicarbonate in 50 % acetonitrile for 30 min each. The gel was dehydrated with 100 % acetonitrile, then the samples were hydrolysed with 400 ng of trypsin (Promega) for 5 h and the peptides extracted with 100 % acetonitrile. After air drying, the hydrolysed samples were resuspended in the same volume of a 0.1 % trifluoroacetic acid aqueous solution before injection (3 µl) and nanoHPLC separation (Ultimate 3000, Dionex) with a C18 column (LC Acclaim PepMap, ThermoScientific, 75 µm, 15 cm) with acetonitrile solution gradient (99.9 % acetonitrile, 0.1 % water) from 10 to 40 % during 50 min (as validated for samples with at least less than 500 different proteins). The peptides separated on the nanoHPLC column were nanoelectrosprayed via a nanoESI source in the mass spectrometer (LTQ Velos IonTrapOrbitrap, ThermoScientific) used in data dependant mode with full MS in the range 400-1 400 m/z with a resolution set up at 30 000 in the orbitrap. For MS/MS, top ten mode was used (full scan MS followed by ten MS/MS analysis on major peptides in the full scan) with 2 repeat counts, dynamic exclusion set up at 80 s, and CID in ion trap set up at 37 % in collision energy. Each condition was performed in triplicates (biological replicates) with two runs per sample (technical repeats).

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Data processing and bioinformatic analysis

The proteins identification was performed from *E. coli* O157:H7 strain EDL933 database (KEGG Genome T00044, 5449 protein entries) using Mascot search engine. Peptides were validated for a Mascot score permitting to obtain a false discovery rate (FDR) at below 1 % and proteins were identified when at least two peptides matched significantly (score higher than 20) in the database with search parameters set to 10 ppm for peptide and 0.5 Da for fragment mass tolerance. Comparison of protein abundance was performed following the standard workflow provided by Progenesis QI for proteomics applying the label-free relative quantification method using Hi-N mode (Nonlinear Dynamics, Waters); basically, the MS1 survey scans are used for ion abundance quantification where peptide ions falling within the robust estimation limits are used to calculate the normalisation factor and selected as normalisation reference to compare peptidic signals between runs. For each subprotoeme, differential protein quantification was considered significant for fold abundance greater than 1.5 and *p*-value lower than 0.05. FDR (false discovery rate) approach was applied to overcome the issue of multiple hypotheis testing and *q*-values (ajsuted *p*-values) were further calculated.

Secretomic analysis was performed for LPS-diderm bacteria [42] using different software tools to predict protein transport pathways, subcellular localisations and protein categories. *In silico* predictions of protein subcellular localisation (SCL) were accessed using PSORTb v.3.0.2 [43] combined with SignalP v5.0 to identify export signal peptides [44] and SecretomeP v2.0 for prediction of non-classically secreted proteins [23] as well as KEGG (Kyoto encyclopedia of genes and genomes) [45] and literature survey for protein secretion pathways [14, 46]. Identified proteins predicted as located at the cytoplasm were filtered for moonlight activity using MoonProt v2.0 [47]. Combining these different predictions with literature survey and Uniprot information [48],

protein transport route was predicted for each protein, including export system across the cytoplasmic membrane, secretion system across the outer membrane, translocational and/or post-translocational maturation systems (Figure 1). The information of gene ontology (GO) for molecular function and biological process was retrieved from UniprotKB and QuickGo [49, 50] and enrichment of overrepresented GO terms was performed using Panther up to the ancestor level 2 [51]. Network analysis to identify protein-protein links was performed using STRING v11.0 [52, 53].

Results

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Mapping the protein secretion routes following secretomic analysis of the 206 proteosurfaceome, proteovesiculome and exoproteome of E. coli O157:H7 207 208 To experimentally determine the repertoire of proteins with an extracytoplasmic localisation and 209 transported from the interior to the exterior of the cell in E. coli O157:H7, a subproteomic analysis 210 was performed not only considering the extracellular milieu (exoproteome) but also the proteins 211 present at the cell surface (proteosurfaceome) and in outer membrane vesicles (proteovesiculome). 212 Besides, three growth media most likely to induce differential protein expression profiles in E. coli 213 O157:H7 were used, namely (i) a bacteria-culture minimal medium (M9), (ii) a bacteria-culture 214 rich complex medium (BHI) and (iii) a tissue-culture chemically defined medium (DMEM). In 215 order to map the transport routes of the total 154 distinct proteins experimentally identified in these 216 conditions, a secretomic analysis was performed (Figure 1 and supplementary material Table S1). 217 Scanning the amino acid sequence of these extracytoproteins, 69 proteins were predicted 218 to possess a N-terminal signal peptide (SP) and thus exported across the inner membrane (IM) by the Sec system (Figures 1, 2 and supplementary material Table S1). Among them, 14 harboured a 219 SP of type II (SPII) and were therefore predicted to be supported by the lipoprotein maturation 220 221 pathway, that is processing by the lipoprotein diacylglyceryl transferase (Lgt), cleaved by a signal 222 peptidase of type II (SPase II) and then the lipoprotein N-acyl transferase (Lnt) [54]; half of them 223 were predicted to be anchored to the IM and thus to be inner membrane lipoproteins (IMLs), 224 whereas the other half were predicted to be outer membrane lipoproteins (OMLs) translocated to 225 the OM across the periplasm by the Lol (lipoprotein outer membrane localisation) pathway [55] 226 and two of them would be surface exposed lipoproteins (SOMLs) following translocation through 227 Bam (β-barrel assembly machinery) [56, 57]. Among the 55 proteins possessing a SPI and thus

cleaved by a SPase I, (i) 33 were predicted as simply exported into the periplasm, *i.e.* some periplasmic proteins (PPs), (ii) one as anchored to the IM by an α-helical transmembrane domain through the insertase YidC [58], *i.e.* as an IMP (inner membrane protein), and (ii) 16 as anchored to the OM by β-barrel upon translocation through the insertase Bam [59], *i.e.* some OMPs (outer membrane proteins). The remaining proteins with a SPI were predicted as secreted across the OM through the Type II secretion system (T2SS), T5aSS, T7SS or by NCS, and were either some exoproteins (soluble extracellular proteins) or subunit of cell-surface appendage (SCSA). Of note, no protein exported across the IM by the alternative Tat (twin-arginine translocation) system and thus exhibiting the cognate SP could be here identified.

Regarding the proteins lacking a SP, 8 were predicted as SCSA and thus cell-surface exposed following secretion and assembly by the T3aSS to form the injectisome needle or by the T3bSS to form flagella (Figure 1 and supplementary material Table S1); two were IMPs inserted via YidC to the IM. Following the secretome concept, the presence of the cognate transport sytems and post-translocation maturation pathways was checked out (Figure 2); for each of the above proteins actively translocated, exported and/or secreted, the proteins associated to the different transport routes were indeed encoded in the genome of *E. coli* O157:H7 EDL933. The remaining 74 proteins lacking a SP were primarily predicted as cytoplasmic but 65 % of them (48 out of 74) could also have an extracytoplasmic localisation upon NCS. Among these extracytoplasmic cytoproteins (ECPs), glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) is known to be found in the extracellular milieu and at the cell surface of EHEC where it can moonlight by binding to plasminogen and fibrinogen [60]; in this species, GAPDH was further demonstrated to be piggybacked through the T3aSS [61]. Additional glycolytic enzymes known to be cell-surface exposed and to moonlight as adhesins in different bacterial species were here identified, including

enolase, pyruvate kinase or triosephosphate isomerase [62]. Some chaperones and elongation factors are also known to be cell-surface exposed, such as the elogation factor TU then participating to bacterial aggregation in *E. coli* [63].

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From the 154 distinct proteins identified, 42, 58 and 127 were found as part of the proteosurfaceome, proteovesiculome and exoproteome, respectively (supplementary material Table S1). While 46 proteins were found in common between the proteovesiculome and exoproteome, essentially some PPs and OMPs (37 and 24 %, respectively), only 14 proteins from the proteovesiculome (essentially some PPs, 79 %) and 25 proteins from the exoproteome (essentially some ECPs and PPs, 44 and 40%, respectively) were common to the proteosurfaceome. With regards to the secretome analysis (Figure 2), the large majority of these proteins experimentally identified were predicted as extracytoplasmic, namely 91 % (38 out of 42), 98 % (57 out of 58) and 80 % (102 out of 127) for the proteosurfaceome, proteovesiculome and exoproteome, respectively (supplementary material Table S1). In the proteosurfaceome and proteovesiculome, the majority of the proteins (60 and 90 %, respectively) were predicted as associated with the cell envelope, namely in the IM, periplasm, OM, or cell surface (Figure 2 and supplementary material Table S1); 60 and 79 % of these proteins were exported via Sec for the proteosurfaceome and proteovesiculome, respectively, and were mainly predicted as PPs or associated to the OM via Bam as OMPs or OMLs (Figure 2). While 39 % of the proteins were predicted as exported via Sec in the exoproteome, only a few exoproteins were identified as secreted by T2SS or T3SS but rather through NCS (Figure 2).

Growth media induce shifting in extracytoprotein abundance and allow identifying core and variant proteosurfaceomes, proteovesiculomes and exoproteomes of *E. coli* O157:H7

To evaluate the influence of the different culture media on proteins transported from the interior to the exterior of *E. coli* O157:H7 cells, a label-free quantitative proteomic analysis was applied to determine the relative protein abundance in these three subproteomes, namely the proteosurfaceome, proteovesiculome and exoproteome. Shifting in protein abundance was analysed individually for each subproteome comparing all three culture media simultaneously (Figure 3 and Tables 1, 2 and 3). Proteins demonstrating significant differences in their abundance were further referred as differential proteins and constituted the variant subproteome; at the opposite, proteins found in the three growth media with no significant differences in their abundance were referred as common proteins and constituted the core subproteome.

In the proteosurfaceome, 55 % (23 out of 42) of total identified proteins in this subproteome showed a change in their relative abundance (Figure 3 and Table 1); this variant proteosurfaceome was essentially constituted of PPs exported by Sec system. The majority of the differential proteins (78%, 18 out of 23) presented the highest abundance when bacteria were grown in DMEM; in contrast, the lowest abundance of differential proteins was observed in BHI (Table 1). Regarding the core proteosurfaceome, the identified proteins were essentially ECPs transported by NCS (supplementary material Table S1). Concerning the proteovesiculome, 84 % (49 out of 58) of the identified proteins constituted the variant proteome as they showed a differential abundance in a media-dependent manner (Figure 3 and Table 2); the differential proteins were essentially exported *via* Sec to the periplasm and corresponded to PPs or further translocated to the OM as OMPs, OMLs, SOMLs or SCSAs. M9 appears as the culture condition where differential proteins

were higher abundant, *i.e.* 78 % (38 out of 49) comparing to the other two growth media. On the contrary, only around 34 % (43 out of 127) of the identified proteins constituted the variant exoproteome (Figure 3 and Table 3); these differential proteins were essentially PPs exported *via* Sec, OMLs and OMPs translocated to the OM, or SCSAs and exoproteins secreted across the OM. The core exoproteome corresponded in the vast majority (75 %, 62 out of 83) to cytoproteins and also ECPs transported by NCS (supplementary material Table S1). As for the proteovesiculome (but in contrast to the proteosurfaceome), M9 condition was again the culture condition for the exoproteome in which most differential proteins were identified (59 %, 26 out of 44), whereas the condition showing the lowest differential abundance was the BHI (Figure 3 and Table 3).

To gain further insight in these subproteomes, differential and common proteins were categorised according to the prediction of gene ontology (GO) classes respective to their subcellular localisation (SCL), biological processes and /or molecular function (Figure 4). Concerning the SCL prediction, the variant proteosurfaceome and proteovesiculome presented similar profiles but differing from the exoproteome (Figure 4A). Changes in proteins abundance were more perceptible on proteins predicted as located in the periplasm (GO: 0042597) and at the OM (GO: 0036406) with both SCL representing more than 50 % of all differential proteins. Proteins predicted as extracellular (GO: 0005576) represented more than 10 % of all differential proteins in both the proteosurfaceome and proteovesiculome (Figure 4A). For the exoproteome, proteins predicted as located in the periplasm represented the majority of the differential proteins (74 %), whereas both exoproteins and OMPs represented less than 20 %. Proteins predicted as cytoplasmic (GO: 0005737) were not identified in the variant subproteomes (Figure 4A). In contrast, some cytoplasmic proteins (cytoproteins) were identified in all the core subproteomes

(Figure 4A); in the exoproteome, 63 % of the common proteins were ECPs trafficking through NCS, some of them predicted with moonlighting activities (supplementary material Table S1).

To categorise which molecular funtions and biological processes were affected in the three studied subproteomes, a enrichment of GO terms was performed. To facilitate the data presentation in Figure 4, GO terms were elevated to the ancestor level 2 (supplementary material Table S1). While only a few proteins had no attributed molecular function (supplementary material Table S1), proteins associated to binding (GO: 0005488) representated the majority of the identified proteins in variant and core subproteomes, *i.e.* around 50 % (Figure 4B). Catalytic activity (GO: 0003824) and transporter activity (GO: 0005212) represented similar percentage of identified proteins in the different subproteomes, whereas structural molecule activity (GO: 0005198) represented around 10 % in the variant proteovesiculome and exoproteome but was was completely absent in proteosurfaceome. The majority of the common proteins in all core subproteomes were associated with binding and catalytic activity (GO: 0005488 and 0003824). A significant number of proteins related with transport activities (GO: 0005212) were identified in the variant subproteomes but not in the core subproteomes.

The enrichment for GO terms related to biological process presented a completely different trend between subproteomes (Figure 4C). Proteins identified in proteosurfaceome were essentially associated with cellular adaptation to the environment. While differential proteins were associated with localisation (GO: 0051179), cellular process (GO: 0009987), over 60 % of common proteins were essentially related to metabolic patways (GO: 0008152) in the proteosurfaceome and exoproteome or localisation in the proteovesiculome. Remarkably, only proteins identified in the variant subproteomes were associated with processes involved in interactions with other organisms (GO: 0051704), cellular organisation (GO: 0071840) and biological adhesion (GO: 0022610). In

addition, most differential proteins from the variant exoproteome were associated to response to stimulus (GO: 0050896). In the core exoproteome, 65 % of the common proteins were associated with metabolic process (GO: 0008152), whereas more than the half of the core proteovesiculome was represented by common proteins related to localisation process (GO: 0051179).

Network analysis of the variant and core proteosurfaceomes, proteovesiculomes and exoproteomes of *E. coli* O157:H7 highlighted functional protein clusters related to some outer membrane proteins, ABC transport and Type III secretion systems

To investigate the links between the proteins identified in each of the variant and core subproteomes of *E. coli* O157:H7 EDL933, a network analysis was performed to profile potential associations and several functional clusters could be highlighted (Figure 5).

In the variant proteosufaceome, several differential proteins were positively influenced in their abundance in DMEM over the two other growth media M9 and BHI, especially several molecular perisplamic chaperones, namely DegP, Skp, SurA, HflK and FkpA (Figure 5A, Table 1). Some proteins associated to cell division as part of the Tol-Pal system were also highlighted in DMEM, namely TolB and CpoB (Figure 5A and Table 1). In the variant proteovesiculome, some flagellar proteins secreted and assembled through the T3bSS were clearly pinpointed with a higher abundance (Figure 5A and Table 2); as such, FlgG, FlgL, FliD, FliC and FlgK were up to 40 fold more abundant in BHI compared to DMEM or M9. Interestingly, in both the variant proteovesiculome and exoproteome, it appeared that some proteins secreted through the T3aSS showed highest abundances when bacteria were grown in DMEM, especially EspA, EspB and EspD showing up to 50-fold higher in abundance in DMEM compared to BHI or M9 (Figure 5A). Similarly, phage major capsid proteins Z1480 and Z1479 were highlighted in this

growth condition. In both the proteovesiculome and exoproteome, several porins (namely OmpA, OmpF and OmpX) were noticeably highlighted as up to 10-fold more abundant in M9 compared to DMEM or BHI (Figure 5A). For the exoproteome, another clearly defined functional cluster with higher protein abundance in M9 was related to some ABC transporters, namely with periplasmic binding proteins LivJ, LivK, FliY, GlnH and YbeJ (Figure 5A). Regarding the variant exoproteome and besides the virulence factor StcE secreted by a T2SS, a group of ribosomal subunits transported through NCS and potentially moonlighting, *i.e.* RplC, RplS and RplA, was highlighted to cluster with high abundance in DMEM (Figure 5A).

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By definition, proteins of the core subproteomes were not influenced in their abundance by the growth media, nonetheless, connectivity network analysis revealed several functional clusters (Figure 5B). In the core proteosurfaceome, a clear cluster of proteins involved in protein biosynthesis and folding was highlighted, namely with the elongation factor TufA and FusA, the ribosomal proteins RlpA, RlpE and RpsC, molecular chaperone DnaK and GroEL, as well as FtsH involved in the quality control of membrane proteins. In addition, an association network of several proteins primarily related to the central catabolism was disclosed, especially with several glycolytic enzymes, namely the glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase GapA, the fructosebisphosphate aldolase FbaA, the pyruvate dehydrogenase components AceE and AceF, as well as the pyruvate formate lyase PflB (Figure 5B). While it was scarce for the core proteovesiculome, a dense protein-protein association network was observed for the core exoproteome. In the latter, two main functional clusters regrouping primarily cytoproteins could be underscored, one involving numerous ribosomal proteins (namely RplE, RplD, RpoA, RpsC, RpsM, RplX, RpsR, RplQ and RplJ) and one involving several enzymes from central metabolic pathways, especially glycolytic enzymes (e.g. Eno, GpmA, Pgi, LpdA, GapA, FbaA or AceE) (Figure 4B).

Discussion

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While numerous proteomic analyses have been dedicated E. coli strain K12, whose secretome and extracytoproteome is relatively well characterised [64-69], much fewer investigations have been dedicated to the secretome of EHEC strains [70]. Bearing in mind that domesticated laboratory strains of E. coli should not be considered as archetypical models [71], proteomic analyses of the secretome appears much more relevant in commensal or pathogenic strains of E. coli to apprehend the ecophysiology of this bacterial species. Respective to EHEC O157:H7, whole-cell or cytoplasmic proteome has been studied on numerous occasions, however, only a handful of reports have dedicated to the exoproteome [72-74] and, surprisingly enough, none to the proteosurfaceome or proteovesiculome. From the first investigation following a 2DE approach, 29 exoproteins were identified in E. coli O157:H7 strain EDL933 grown in LB [72]; using a LC/LC-MS/MS approach, the latest study allowed to reproducibly identify 65 exoproteins from bacteria grown in M9 [74]. Compared to the total of 127 exoproteins presently identified from this same E. coli O157:H7 strain using three very different growth media, our work outperformed previous investigations but more importantly our subcellular fraction procedure allowed to discriminate free soluble extracellular proteins in the culture supernatant (true exoproteome) from proteins vectorised by OMVs (proteovesiculome), which are generally mixed up in other studies of the so-called exoproteome, also often misleadingly called secretome [21]. From the premise that secreted proteins reflect the lifestyle of bacterial cells in given

environmental conditions, the secretome of *E. coli* O157:H7 EDL933 was investigated using distinct growth culture media most likely to induce differential protein expression profiles. Following the secretome concept aiming at apprehending comprehensively the protein trafficking from the interior to the exterior of the a cell considering both the secreted proteins and their cognate

secretion systems, the extracytoplamic proteome of *E. coli* O157:H7 EDL933 was for the first time experimentally and comprehensively deciphered considering the proteosurfaceome, proteovesiculome and exoproteome. From (i) the export across or insertion in the IM, (ii) the post-translocational maturations in the periplasm, and (iii) the secretion across, anchoring to or insertion in the OM, the different systems involved in protein translocation and transport were identified by proteogenomic analyses. This analytical approach further allowed to attribute each of the extracytoplasmic proteins experimentally identified with the respective transport pathways and thus provided a map of the protein trafficking routes. Besides, this secretome-based analysis permitted to ascribe each of the experimentally identified proteins to a category and different SCL.

While secreted proteins generally require a N-terminal SP, e.g. proteins first exported by the Sec system and then further secreted by the T2SS, T5SS or T7SS (Figure 1), some other proteins lack such a SP, e.g. proteins secreted via a T3SS. From sequence similarity, such secreted proteins could be deduced based on homology and a secretion pathway could then be attributed. Besides these known secretion systems, however, no secretion system could be attributed to some identified exoproteins. Such proteins could be transported by NCS, that is by unknown secretion systems or mechanisms [22, 23]. It can be wise to further discriminate NCS from unconventional protein trafficking (UCT), in the sense that NCS refers to an active protein transport mechanism through a conducting channel, whereas UCT refers to mechanisms unrelated to secretion per se but participating to protein trafficking from inside to outside the cell compartment. Different NCS mechanims can be at play, such as piggybacking as demonstrated in E. coli O157:H7 for the GAPDH, which associates to T3aSS effectors and is thus non-specifically secreted via this system [61]. Among ECPs, it is interesting to note that a number is well-known to associate to other proteins, especially the molecular chaperone in the course of protein folding and quality check, or

ribosomal proteins in the course of protein synthesis, especially upon co-translational translocational. Including glycolytic enzyme known to moonlight at the bacterial cell surface in numerous bacterial species [62], the hypothesis that such ECPs could be secreted by piggybacking would clearly necessitate further in-depth investigations. One of the most well-known UCT mechanisms involve OMVs. Upon blebbing of the OM, OMVs carrying periplasmic and OM-associated proteins are released in the culture supernatant; it cannot be excluded that some of them burst out liberating their luminal content (with periplasmic proteins) as well as OM-associated proteins in the extracellular milieu. Contrary to most exoproteomic analyses that just recover the culture supernatant, the present investigation took a great care to differentiate the exoproteome from the proteovesiculome by separating the culture supernatant into two fractions. As suggested by the identification of phage capside proteins, some ECPs could be released upon activation of lysogenic bacteriophage entering into a lytic cycle. As an UCT mechanism, bacterial cell lysis could also be induced in the course of control cell lysis by sibblings, *i.e.* allolysis [75] or following apoptosis upon holin activation [76].

Investigating the proteosurfaceome, exoproteome and proteovesiculome, a comprehensive picture of the experimental extracytoplasmic proteome landscape of *E. coli* O157:H7 EDL933 was obtained for the first time. Proteomic quantitative analysis revealed significant changes in all subproteomes. Remarkably, 76 % of the total proteins identified in the extracellular milieu changed their abundance when comparing the three culture media investigated. Actually, proteins found in the exoproteome appeared with the highest abundance in minimal chemically defined medium M9. While M9 has sometimes been considered as inhibiting protein secretion [77], it must be stressed that minimal media are well-known in bacterial physiology to trigger the full anabolic potential of a cell. Indeed, in M9 neither macromolecules (*e.g.* lipids, polysaccharides, proteins,

DNA) nor elementary bricks (e.g. fatty acids, glucides, amino acids, nucleotides) are present, thus the cell needs to synthetise them all de novo. While BHI is clearly a rich medium providing a whole set of biochemical macromolecules that needs first to be degraded (depolymerised) before being use by the cell, DMEM can be viewed as an in-between since macromecules are absent but some elementary bricks (namely amino acids or some vitamins) are readily available for the cell; in the latter and contrary to growth in M9, the cell does not necessarily trigger the basic biosynthetic pathways to synthetise them but at least some polymerisation and assembly pathways. In agreement with the fact that protein secretion is an essential anabolic cellular function, changes in the extracytoproteome (including the proteosurfaceome, proteovesiculome and exoproteome) were clearly demonstrated in M9 compared to the rich media. In agreement with active proteins trafficking in the cell, the biological processes related to transport, tethering or maintenance of molecules in a specific location (GO: 0051179) were the most affected by culture conditions in these subproteomes. Considering the biochemical nature of molecules to be transported differs between rich complex and chemically defined media (i.e. use of partially depolymerised compounds versus biosynthesis of elementary bricks, respectively) to support bacterial metabolism and growth, the differential bacterial physiology in these conditions could explain that a significant number of proteins related to transport activities (GO: 0005212) were identified in the variant subproteomes rather than in the core subproteomes. This investigation allowed providing the first dynamic picture of extracytoplasmic proteins differentially or similarly expressed in response to different culture conditions respective to their predicted SCL and biological processes. All-in-all and by modulating the levels of protein expression in the protesurfaceome, proteovesiculome and exoproteome, E. coli O157 appeared to adapt its secretion profile depending on the environmental conditions.

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In allowing the transport of protein effectors, secretion systems are closely related to the main virulence features in pathogenic bacteria. The present work revealed that DMEM induced major changes in the proteosurfaceome comparing to the other two growth media. As expected from the up-regulation of the LEE in DMEM [77, 78], the abundance of proteins related with the injectisome (T3aSS) was higher in this medium. Interestingly, in this condition the abundance of proteins related to flagellum (T3bSS) was lower, which could suggest some kind of counterregulation of these two types of T3SS. While such regulation trend has never been reported for E. coli O157:H7 EDL933 and would require further in-depth investigations, in Yersinia and Shigella, flagellar genes are induced at temperatures below 30°C but injectisome genes are transcribed at 37°C [79-82]. In E. coli O157:H7, the induction of the LEE in DMEM would result from the presence of sodium bicarbonate, which enhances the transcription of ler [36]. The effect of NaHCO₃ on the expression of other genes and secretion of proteins remain unknown but would undoubtedly require further investigations. Actually, differential expression of other virulence factors in E. coli O157:H7 has been reported in the literature but generally relies on transcriptional analysis [36, 37, 77, 78, 83-88] or on adhesion phenotype to various cell models [34, 83, 89, 90]. While transcriptomics is useful for initial information about the genetic expression in some given conditions, the correlation between mRNA level and protein abundance is known to be poor and at most indicates that a protein is likely expressed when mRNA is present [30]. As such, proteomics remains the ultimate method of choice to ascertain that proteins are effectively expressed, especially for secreted proteins since the regulation level is not only transcriptional but can occur at pre-transcriptional, post-transcriptional, post-translational and/or post-translocational levels. Besides the influence of the nutrient composition, the bacterial growth rate per se could influence protein expression and secretion, such as the flagellar biosynthesis [57]; a rigourous

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investigation of the influence of the bacterial growth rate in a given medium, thought, cannot be performed in batch culture but in chemostat cultures [91, 92]. Additional environmental parameters, especially temperature and pH, could also be tested to assay their effects on the expression of the secreted proteins and thus broaden our knowledge of the secretome landscape. In fact, the experimental identification of extracytoplasmic proteins is necessary to better understand the physiology and ecophysiology of *E. coli* O157:H7 in various environments. Extracytoproteins have also practical importance for the development of preventive strategies against EHEC and/or DEC contamination along the food chain and ultimately human infection. This can include the development of antagonists targeting important virulence or colonisation factors but also the identification of potential antigens for vaccine development [93, 94].

Author's contributions

RM and MD conceptualise the overarching aims of the research study. RM, IC, SL, CC and MD conceived and designed the experiments. RM, IC, VA and CC performed the experiments and data acquisition. RM, IC, VA, SL, CC, MH, VL, MP, AP and MD analysed and interpreted the data. MD had management as well as coordination responsibility for the execution of the research work. MP and MD contributed to the acquisition of the financial supports and resources leading to this publication. RM, IC, VA, SL, CC, MH, VL, MP, AP and MD wrote the article, including drafting and revising critically the manuscript for important intellectual content.

RM: Conceptualisation, Methodology, Formal analysis, Investigation, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing, Visualisation. IC: Conceptualisation, Methodology, Formal analysis, Investigation, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing, Visualisation, Supervision. VA: Formal analysis, Investigation, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing, Visualisation. SL: Conceptualisation, Formal analysis, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing, Visualisation. CC: Conceptualisation, Validation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Resources, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing. MH: Formal analysis, Resources, Writing - review & editing, Supervision. VL; Formal analysis, Writing - review & editing. MP: Formal analysis, Resources, Writing - review & editing, Supervision, Funding acquisition. AP: Formal analysis, Writing - review & editing, Supervision, Resources, Formal analysis, Investigation, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing, Visualisation, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition.

Competing interests

MP and AP are permanent employees of the GSK group of companies. All other authors have declared no competing interests.

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Supplementary material

- Table S1 Total proteins identified in the proteosurfaceome, proteovesiculome and
- exoproteome of *E. coli* O157:H7 EDL933

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Figures legends 803 804 Figure 1 Decision tree for predicting the subcellular localisation of proteins in a LPS-diderm 805 bacterium based on the biology of protein secretion. 806 The protein sequences are sequentially analysed in a workflow for (i) signal peptide (SP), (ii) the 807 type of SP, (iii) the presence of transmembrane (TM) α-helice responsible for IM retention, (iv) 808 the delivery of lipoprotein to the Lol system, (v) the presence of the presence of TM β-barrel 809 responsible for OM retention, and (vi) the systems involved in translocation into or across the OM. 810 In the end, proteins are discriminated first into different protein categories and then for their final 811 subcellular localisation (SCL). SP I: SP of type I, SP II: SP of type II, SP IV: SP of type IV, Tat-SP: twin-arginine translocation 812 813 SP, Lol: localisation of lipoproteins, Bam: β-barrel assembly machinery, T2SS: Type II secretion 814 system, T3aSS: Type III, subtype a, secretion system, T3bSS: Type III, subtype b, secretion 815 system, T5aSS: Type V, subtype a, secretion system, T5eSS: Type V, subtype e, secretion system, 816 T7SS: Type VII secretion system, NCS: non-classical secretion, CP: cytoprotein, IMP: inner 817 membrane protein, IML: inner membrane lipoprotein, PP: periplasmic protein, OML: outer 818 membrane lipoprotein, OMP: outer membrane protein, SOML: surface outer membrane 819 lipoprotein, SCSA: subunit of cell surface appendage, EP: exoprotein, ECP: extracytoplasmic 820 cytoprotein, CY: cytoplasm, IM: inner membrane, PE: periplasm, OM: outer membrane, CS: cell 821 surface, EM: extracellular milieu. 822 Figure 2 Secretome based analysis of the proteins identified in the different extracytoplasmic 823 subproteomes of E. coli O157:H7 EDL933 824 Schematic representation of the secretion routes for the proteins identified in the 825 proteosurfaceomes, proteovesiculomes and exoproteomes (Figure 1 and supplementary material

Table S1). The different categories of proteins are depicted in red and the number of proteins identified in the proteosurfaceome, proteovesiculome and exoproteome is indicated in black, grey and white, respectively. Components of the different protein transport systems were identified in E. coli O157:H7 EDL933 and reported with Uniprot number; export systems are indicated in violet, insertases in yellow, posttranslocational maturation pathway in green, and protein secretion systems in blue. Sec: secretion, SPase I: signal peptidase of type I, SPase II: lipoprotein maturation pathway involving the signal peptidase of type II, Lol: localisation of lipoproteins, Bam: β-barrel assembly machinery, T2SS: Type II secretion system, T3aSS: Type III, subtype a, secretion system, T3bSS: Type III, subtype b, secretion system, T5aSS: Type V, subtype a, secretion system, T5eSS: Type V, subtype e, secretion system, T7SS: Type VII secretion system, NCS: non-classical secretion, CPs: cytoproteins, IMPs: inner membrane proteins, IMLs: inner membrane lipoproteins, PPs: periplasmic proteins, OMLs: outer membrane lipoproteins, OMPs: outer membrane proteins, SOMLs: surface outer membrane lipoproteins, SCSAs: subunits of cell surface appendages, EP: exoproteins, ECPs: extracytoplasmic cytoproteins, CY: cytoplasm, IM: inner membrane, PE: periplasm, OM: outer membrane, CS: cell surface, EM: extracellular milieu. Figure 3 Heat maps for differential proteins in the proteosurfaceomes, proteovesiculomes and exoproteomes of E. coli O157:H7 EDL933 grown in M9, DMEM and BHI Shades of blue represent the relative abundance of variant proteins between the distinct growth media and for each subproteome. Dark blue indicates higher protein abundance in the given conditions compare to the other two, and vice versa for light blue.

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Figure 4 Distribution of common and differential proteins identified in the different 848 extracytoplasmic subproteomes of E. coli O157:H7 EDL933 respective to the predicted SCL 849 and biological process 850 A. Percentage of common and differential proteins identified in the proteosurfaceomes, 851 proteovesiculomes and exoproteomes respective to predicted SCL according the gene ontology 852 (GO) terms for cellular component. Pink shades indicate proteins predicted as extracytoplasmic 853 (ECY), i.e. are either located at the cell envelope (GO: 0030313), namely at the IM 854 (GO: 0005886), in the periplasm (PE; GO: 0042597), at the OM (GO: 0019867), or at the cell 855 surface (CS; GO: 0009986), or in the extracellular milieu (EM; GO: 0005576); it further includes proteins primarily predicted as cytoplasmic but also as present in the extracellular milieu 856 (EM/CY). Violet colour stands for proteins solely predicted as cytoplasmic (CY; GO: 0005737). 857 858 B. Percentage of common and differential proteins identified in the proteosurfaceomes, 859 proteovesiculomes and exoproteomes respective to the GO terms for molecular function. Identified 860 molecular functions terms included (i) GO: 0005488 related to binding with the selective, non-861 covalent, often stoichiometric, interaction of a molecule with one or more specific sites on another molecule, (ii) GO: 0005215 related to transport with the directed movement of substances (such 862 863 as macromolecules, small molecules, ions) into, out of or within a cell, or between cells, (iii) GO: 864 0003824 related to catalytic activity with catalysis of a biochemical reaction at physiological 865 temperatures, and (iv) GO: 0005198 related to structural activity with the action of a molecule that 866 contributes to the structural integrity of a complex or its assembly within or outside a cell. 867 C. Percentage of common and differential proteins identified in the proteosurfaceomes, 868 proteovesiculomes and exoproteomes respective to the GO terms for biological process. Identified 869 biological process terms included (i) GO: 0071840 related to cellular organisation with

biosynthesis of constituent macromolecules, assembly, arrangement of constituent parts, or disassembly of a cellular component, (ii) GO:0051704 related to organism interaction with the involvement of another organism of the same or different species, (iii) GO:0022610 related to biological adhesion with the attachment of a cell or organism to a substrate, another cell, or other organism, (iv) GO: 0065007 related to regulation process with any process that modulates a measurable attribute of any biological process, quality or function, (v) GO: 0008152 related to metabolic process with the chemical reactions and pathways, including anabolism and catabolism, by which living organisms transform chemical substances, (vi) GO: 0050896 related to response to stimulus with any process that results in a change in state or activity of a cell, e.g. in terms of gene expression, protein synthesis, secretion or movement, as a result of a detected stimulus, (vii) GO: 0051179 related to molecular localisation with any process in which a substance or molecule is transported, tethered to or otherwise maintained in a specific location and (viii) GO: 0009987 related to cellular process with any process that is carried out at the cellular level. Green bars stand for proteosurfaceome, blue bars for proteovesiculome and orange bars for exoproteome. Enrichment analysis was performed with Panther to the ancestor level 2 of GO [51]. Figure 5: Protein-protein interaction network of differential proteins and common proteins identified in the proteosurfaceomes, proteovesiculomes and exoproteomes of E. coli O157:H7 EDL933 grown in M9, DMEM and BHI Interaction network for the variant subproteomes (A) and core subproteomes (B) with colour

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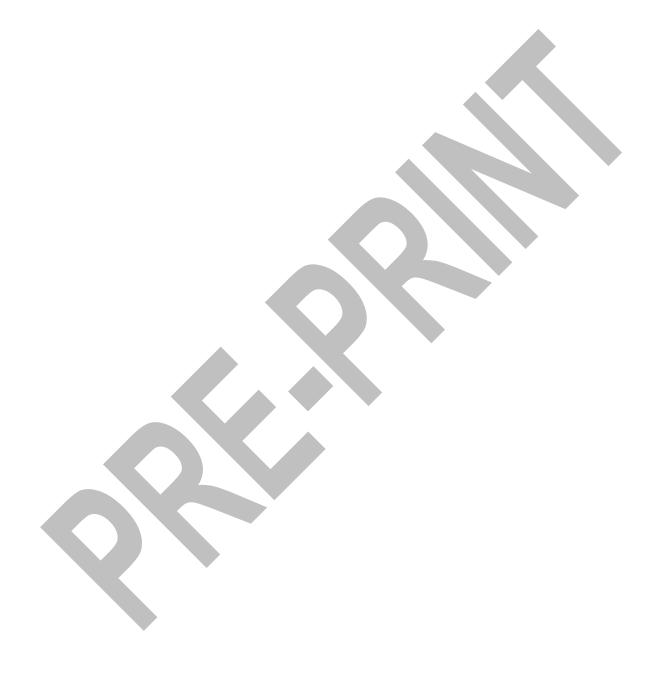
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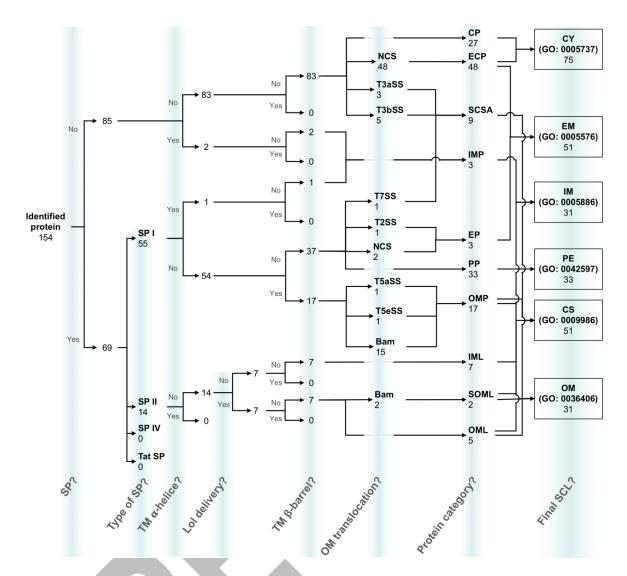
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Interaction network for the variant subproteomes (A) and core subproteomes (B) with colour shades indicating higher protein abundance in DMEM (red), BHI (green) and M9 (grey) for the proteosurfaceome, proteovesiculome and exoproteome. Each network node (sphere) represents a protein produced by a single protein-coding gene locus. Edges (connecting lines) represent protein-protein associations, which are meant to be specific and meaningful, *i.e.* proteins that jointly

contribute to a shared function without necessarily meaning they are physically binding one with another.







897 Figure 1

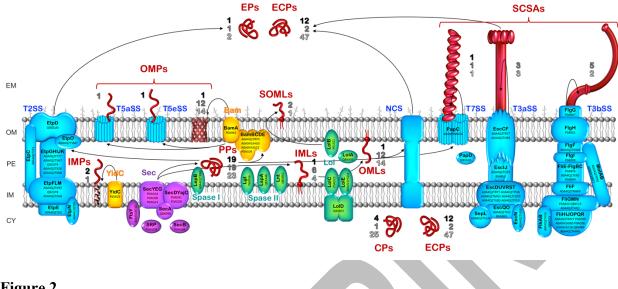


Figure 2

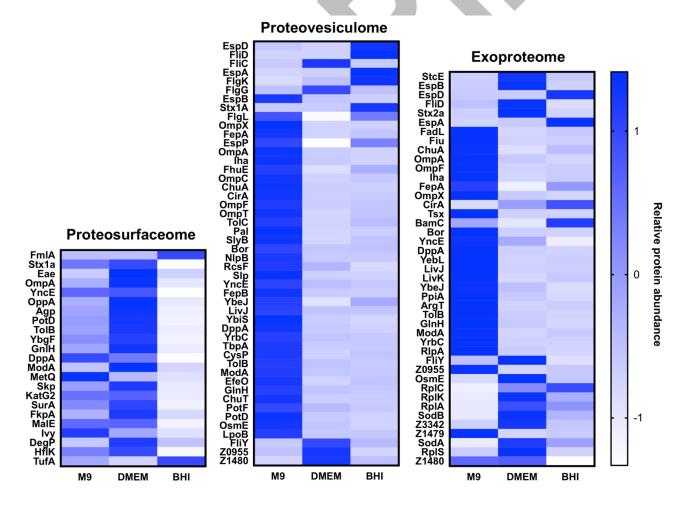


Figure 3

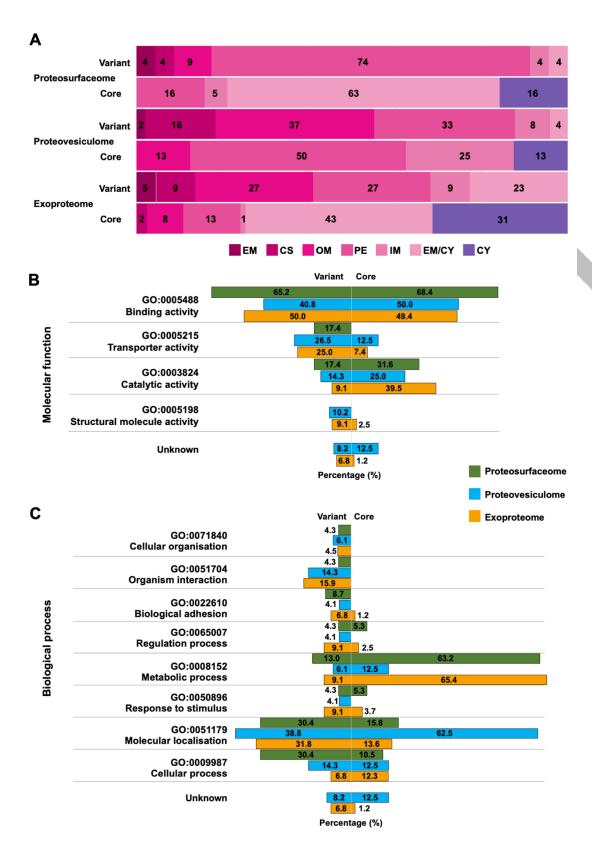


Figure 4

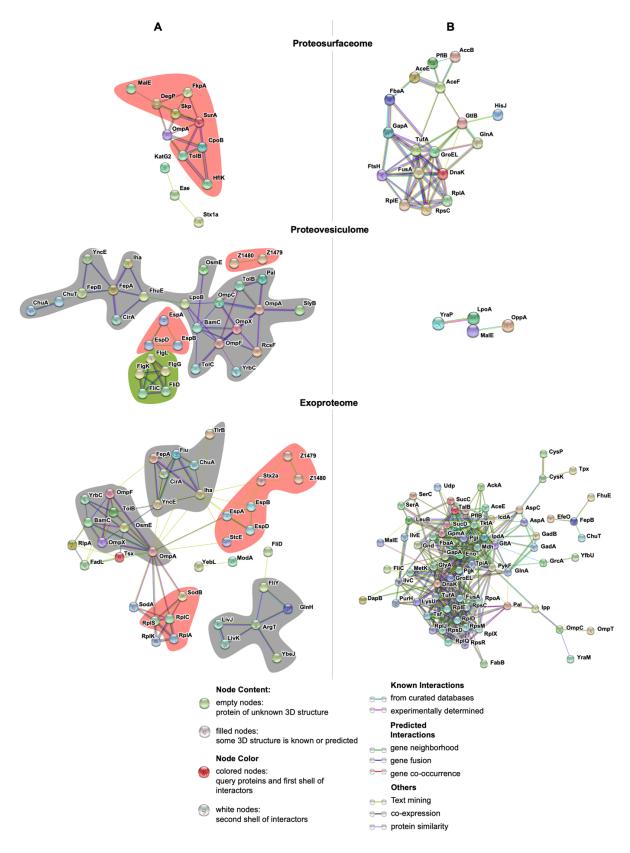


Figure 5