

1 **Growth and biofilm formation of *Cupriavidus metallidurans* CH34 on**
2 **different metallic and polymeric materials used in spaceflight**
3 **applications**

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14 **Growth and biofilm formation of *Cupriavidus metallidurans* CH34 on**
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17 Bacteria biofilm formation and its complications are of special concern in
18 isolated structures, such as offshore stations, manned submarines and space
19 habitats, as maintenance and technical support are poorly accessible due to costs
20 and/or logistical challenges. In addition, considering that future exploration
21 missions are planned to adventure farther and longer in space, unlocking biofilm
22 formation mechanisms and developing new antifouling solutions are key goals in
23 order to ensure spacecraft's efficiency, crew's safety and mission success. In this
24 work, we explored the interactions between *Cupriavidus metallidurans*, a
25 prevalently identified contaminant onboard the International Space Station, and
26 aerospace grade materials such as the titanium alloy TiAl6V4, the stainless steel
27 AISI 316 (SS316) and Polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) or Teflon. Borosilicate
28 glass was used as a control and all surfaces were investigated at two different pH
29 values (5.0 and 7.0). Biofilms were almost absent on stainless steel and the
30 titanium alloy contrary to Teflon and glass that were covered by an extensive
31 biofilm formed via monolayers of scattered matrix-free cells and complex
32 multilayered clusters or communities. Filamentous extracellular DNA structures
33 were observed specifically in the complex multilayered clusters adherent to
34 Teflon, indicating that the employed attachment machinery might depend on the
35 physicochemical characteristics of the surface.

36 Keywords: *Cupriavidus metallidurans*; biofilm; eDNA; PTFE; stainless steel;
37 titanium alloy

38 **Introduction**

39 Bacteria have the ability to attach to a surface and/or to each other and to form
40 multicellular communities embedded in a polymeric matrix known as biofilms
41 (Stoodley et al., 2002). This phenomenon is linked to an increased resistance to
42 antibacterial agents and despite decontamination processes, adherent bacteria are
43 problematic for many industries such as health care, drugs manufacturing, food

44 processing, oil extraction and electronics (Harrison et al., 2007; Mah and O'Toole,
45 2001; Van Houdt and Michiels, 2010). Biofilm formation and its complications are of
46 special concern in isolated structures, such as offshore stations, manned submarines and
47 space habitats, as maintenance and technical support are poorly accessible due to costs
48 and/or logistical challenges. Biofilms can cause surface corrosion, hardware
49 degradation, clots and failures in critical equipment such as piping or filters of life
50 supporting systems, water-recycling units, radiators and in extravehicular mobility units
51 (EMU). In fact, related to spaceflight applications, such incidents have already been
52 observed in the Salyut, Mir and Skylab stations, and continue to be a challenging threat
53 on board the International Space Station (ISS) (Diaz et al., 2019; Flemming, 1998;
54 Klintworth et al., 1999).

55 The main concern for biofilm control strategies in spacecraft revolves around
56 water storage and recycling systems as the initiation of biofilm formation depends
57 largely on humidity (water droplets, vapor, condensate, water/liquid pipes, liquid tanks).
58 For instance, numerous hazardous points have been identified in spacecraft wet systems
59 as potential entries for microbial contamination or to be prone to biofilm formation, and
60 most of them have been traced to the sanitary space, the Environmental Control and
61 Life Support System (ECLSS) of the spacecraft or of its EMU and in thermal control
62 systems (Roman and Minton-Summers, 1998; Schultz et al., 1991; Squire et al., 2014).
63 In general, the ECLSS is a complex network of tanks, pumps, pipes, hoses and filters
64 that allows the regeneration of potable water from the recovery of urine and humidity
65 condensate in an enclosed environment. On the ISS, it is especially complicated and it
66 extends on 29 orbital replacement units (ORU) where countless components made from
67 various materials (e.g. Stainless Steel 302, 303, 304, 316, 318-8, 6061 Aluminum,
68 TiAl6V4, Inconel 718) can be directly or indirectly interacting. Other materials of

69 spacecraft or space suits such as Teflon, Nafion, Fluorel, nylon, Nomex, Gore-tex,
70 nickel and boron-nickel alloys, 60NiTi, graphite, silver, polyurethane coated aluminum
71 and gold-anodized aluminum can also be in contact with humid environments (Squire et
72 al., 2014).

73 Both urine and humidity condensate collected in spacecraft can contain a large
74 number of molecules and various carbon sources that are suitable for microbial
75 proliferation. Even after processing, water samples from the Mir station had 0.005 to
76 0.023 g L⁻¹ of total organic carbon. Analysis of humidity condensate in Shuttle
77 missions STS-45 and STS-47 showed that the total organic carbon levels ranged from
78 0.12 g L⁻¹ to 0.7 g L⁻¹ (National Research Council, 2000). These concentrations are
79 sufficient for microbial proliferation, especially for oligotrophic bacteria that can
80 survive at levels of carbons as low as 0.001 g L⁻¹ (Ishida and Kadota, 1981). Next to
81 water and available nutrients, the characteristic surface properties of the materials, such
82 as hydrophobicity, surface energy and electron donor/acceptor potential, will play a
83 crucial role in orienting microbial adhesion.

84 Squire et al. (2014) indicate that due to technical limitations, the routine
85 antimicrobial procedure (gamma irradiation or extended heat treatment at 87.7°C)
86 cannot be applied to all ORUs elements before launch. In fact, 5 from 16 items that are
87 launched wet or containing water are not subjected to disinfection. This could create
88 favorable conditions for inflight microbial growth and potential biofilm formation that
89 could spread inside the wet system. Also microbial monitoring campaigns onboard the
90 ISS showed recurrent microbial contamination events (Van Houdt and Leys, 2020; Zea
91 et al., 2020). Although biofilms in water systems are interacting multispecies
92 communities (Thompson et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2021), one species that attracted
93 attention is *Cupriavidus metallidurans*. A Gram-negative bacterium belonging to the

94 *Burkholderiaceae* family that has been detected from 2009 to 2019 in almost all
95 samples coming from the wastewater tank, the potable waterbus or the condensate
96 (Mijnendonckx et al., 2013; Zea et al., 2020). This facultative chemolithotrophic motile
97 microbe shows resistance to a broad range of metals, including silver used as
98 disinfectant onboard ISS, and is able to adapt to various harsh conditions, including low
99 nutrients environments (Maertens et al., 2020; Mijnendonckx et al., 2019;
100 Mijnendonckx et al., 2013; Van Houdt et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2018). In addition,
101 bacteria are exposed to specific conditions (e.g. microgravity and cosmic radiation)
102 during spaceflight (Acres et al., 2021; Bijlani et al., 2021; Horneck et al., 2010; Huang
103 et al., 2018), which have also been studied for *C. metallidurans* type strain CH34
104 (Byloos et al., 2017; Leys et al., 2009) (De Gelder et al., 2009; Leroy et al., 2010).
105 Furthermore, it is used to explore future spaceflight applications such as testing
106 antimicrobial surfaces (Siems et al., 2022) as well as biomining and bioremediation
107 (Byloos et al., 2017; Cockell et al., 2020; Santomartino et al., 2020). It is therefore a
108 representative of the contaminant species found in humid spacecraft systems as well as
109 a microbe with potential extra-terrestrial applications.

110 As future exploration missions are planned to adventure farther and longer in
111 space, unlocking biofilm formation mechanisms and developing new antifouling
112 solutions suitable for use in such a challenging environment are goals of key importance
113 in order to ensure spacecraft's efficiency, crew's safety and mission success. In this
114 work, we aim to explore the interactions between *C. metallidurans* and aerospace grade
115 materials such as titanium alloy TiAl6V4, stainless steel AISI 316 (SS316) and
116 polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) or Teflon. The impact of these materials on planktonic
117 growth and biofilm formation, in addition to its biodeterioration effect are investigated
118 at different pH values.

119 **Material and methods**

120 ***Bacterial strains, media and culture conditions***

121 *C. metallidurans* CH34 was routinely grown in Tris–buffered mineral medium
122 (MM284) (Mergeay et al., 1985) supplemented with 2 g L⁻¹ sodium gluconate as the
123 sole carbon source. The final pH was adjusted to 5.0 or 7.0 with HCl 37%. Although
124 gluconate can chelate metal ions (Gyuresik and Nagy, 2000) and could impact biofilm
125 biomass and production of extracellular polymeric substances (Liu et al., 2021; Luo et
126 al., 2019; Pal and Paul, 2013), it is readily consumed by *C. metallidurans* and as such
127 would have a limited impact.

128 ***Preparation and setup of biofilm experiments***

129 Materials tested included coupons of borosilicate glass (75 mm x25 mm x1 mm,
130 stainless steel AISI 316 (used in ECLSS tanks and pipes, pumps and separators (Squire
131 et al., 2014); 80 mm x 5 mm x 0.5mm), Teflon (used in hoses of thermal control
132 systems, valves, bladders, insulation and gas separators (Squire et al., 2014; Wieland
133 and Center, 1998); 18 mm x 13 mm x 3 mm) and titanium alloy TiAl6V4 (used in the
134 outer shell of water tanks and tubing (Petala et al., 2020); 25mm x 25 mm x1 mm) were
135 cleaned with deionized water and sonicated in 70% ethanol for 15 min. Next, coupons
136 were rinsed with deionized water and autoclaved. Precultures of *C. metallidurans* CH34
137 were grown at 30°C on an orbital shaker (150 rpm) until an optical density (OD₆₀₀) of
138 0.2 in MM284 (pH 7.0). Each sterilized coupon was then placed in a 50 mL conical
139 centrifuge tube to which 15 mL of MM284 and 350 µL preculture were added. Tubes
140 were then placed on a tilting (15°) shaker and incubated at room temperature (23 ± 2°C)
141 and 1 rpm (turbulent flow conditions) for 168 hours.

142 ***Analysis of growth and biofilm formation***

143 Planktonic growth was evaluated by measuring OD600 every 24 h. Biofilm formation
144 was assessed using the crystal violet (CV) dye that binds to DNA and proteins. A
145 solution of 0.1% CV was prepared (0.1 g of CV in 2 mL 95% ethanol and 98 mL of
146 deionized water). At the end of the experiment, coupons were gently removed and softly
147 rinsed 3 times with deionized water. Coupons were then air-dried and covered with the
148 CV solution for 15 min. Afterwards, the CV solution was discarded and coupons were
149 rinsed 3 times with deionized water. Coupons were left to air dry before quantifying the
150 amount of CV by solubilizing in 4 mL of 95% ethanol and measuring absorbance at 620
151 nm. Measurements were normalized by subtracting the average of abiotic controls.
152 For biofilm viable counts, coupons were rinsed twice with sterile saline solution (0.85%
153 NaCl). Next, coupons were placed in a new sterile tube with 15ml of saline solution and
154 sonicated (30s, 35kHz) in a sonication bath (Elma, Germany) and subsequently
155 vortexed (20 min, 2700 rpm). Cell suspensions (100 μ L) of a serial ten-fold dilution in
156 saline were spread on MM284 agar plates and incubated at 30°C. Colony forming units
157 (CFU) were counted after 3 days.

158 ***Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM)***

159 Biofilms were examined under the SEM at the end of the experiment (168 h). Surfaces
160 were gently rinsed with deionized water to remove non-adherent cells. Samples were
161 then fixed for 2 hours in Bouin's solution (Jacobsen et al., 1980). Next, samples were
162 dehydrated by immersion in an ethanol graded series as follows: 30 min in 70% ethanol,
163 overnight in 70% ethanol, 30 min in 70% ethanol, 2 times 30 min in 90% ethanol, and 1
164 h in 100% ethanol. After dehydration, samples were dried with liquid CO₂ in a critical
165 point dryer. Finally, they were gold-coated in a sputter coater and placed in a JSM-
166 7200F microscope (JEOL, Japan).

167 ***DNase treatment***

168 Biofilms were grown as previously described (only at pH 7 to avoid interference with
169 DNase activity). Growth medium was discarded and coupons were gently rinsed with
170 sterile deionized water to remove loosely attached cells. Rinsed coupons were immersed
171 in 3 ml of 5 µg mL⁻¹ DNaseI (Qiagen, Germany) and incubated 1 h statically at 37°C.
172 Next, samples were rinsed, stained with CV, dried at room temperature and observed
173 with an automated inverted fluorescence microscope (TE2000-E; Nikon, Tokyo, Japan)
174 equipped with a Cy5 filter set (excitation passband: 590-650 nm; emission: 660-
175 740nm).

176 ***Inductively Coupled Plasma - Atomic Emission Spectroscopy (ICP-AES)***

177 The concentration of iron and aluminum leached from SS316 and TiAl6V4,
178 respectively, were determined in the culture medium and the planktonic cells with ICP-
179 AES. At the end of the experiment (168 h), coupons were removed from the culture
180 medium and bacteria in suspension were pelleted via centrifugation at 10.000 g for 2
181 min. One mL of the supernatant was sampled and diluted with 14 mL of 5% HNO₃.
182 The pellets were resuspended in 1 mL of filtered deionized water and 2 mL of
183 concentrated HNO₃ was added to each sample and left to digest overnight at room
184 temperature. Finally, 12 mL of 5% HNO₃ was added. For abiotic controls, samples
185 were centrifuged and 1 mL supernatant was diluted in 14 mL of 5% HNO₃. All samples
186 were stored at +5°C until analysis.

187 ***Contact-angle measurements***

188 Coupons were incubated 3 h in sterile MM284 (final pH of 5 or 7). Next, coupons were
189 removed from the medium and left to air-dry before analysis. Contact angle
190 measurement was performed using a VCA optima goniometer (AST Products, Billerica,

191 USA) according to the static drop method. Three μL of deionized water were deposited
192 on the dry substratum and six measurements were made for each sample. Images were
193 analyzed with VCA Optima software (AST Products, Billerica, USA). The surface was
194 considered hydrophilic or hydrophobic when the contact angle was less or more than
195 90° , respectively.

196 *Statistical analysis*

197 Statistical comparison of two samples was performed using the Student's t-test.
198 Statistical comparison of multiple samples was performed using a one-way ANOVA
199 analysis, followed by a post-hoc Tukey test. A p-value less than 0.05 was consider
200 statistically significant.

201 **Results and Discussion**

202 *Surface characterization*

203 The surfaces of the uninoculated clean materials were first analyzed under the SEM.
204 SS316 appeared regular and streaked with parallel thin bands (Figure 1b). Teflon
205 appeared mainly smooth and crossed occasionally by stripes or stretches of nearly $5\text{-}\mu\text{m}$
206 width (Figure 1c). The glass surface was very smooth and free from any special
207 topographic features (Figure 1a), whereas TiAl6V4 was rough and covered with crests
208 and pits of 10 to 30 μm wide (Figure 1d). Contact angle measurements showed that
209 glass was highly hydrophilic at pH 5.0 and 7.0, and no significant differences in contact
210 angles were observed (Figure 2). Glass was the most hydrophilic substratum with very
211 low contact angles that did not exceed $25.31 \pm 6.45^\circ$. Teflon was the most hydrophobic
212 material with contact angles not less than $109.11 \pm 6.61^\circ$ (Figure 2) and SS316 was
213 amphiphilic. Finally, although contact angles of TiAl6V4 varied significantly between
214 pH 5.0 and pH 7.0, it remained hydrophilic (Figure 2). Since the growth medium

215 (MM284) contained various ions and a carbohydrate (gluconate), contact angles were
216 also measured in pure water. Indeed, MM284 components significantly decreased the
217 contact angles for glass and TiAl6V4 at pH 5 and pH 7, and for SS316 at pH 5 (Figure
218 2). At the contrary, a significant increase in contact angle was observed for Teflon
219 between the conditioning in MM284 pH 7.0 and in pure water.

220 ***Planktonic growth of C. metallidurans CH34 in the presence of the test*** 221 ***surfaces***

222 It is clear that bacteria show variable sensitivities to pH. Whereas neutrophilic bacteria
223 prosper in circumneutral pH, acidophilic and alkaliphilic ones prefer opposite sides of
224 the pH scale. In addition, the presence of macromolecules, nutrients and sensitizing
225 compounds can change the bacterial response to the surrounding pH. Non-optimal pH
226 or pH shifts are stressful for bacteria, it can unbalance the cellular homeostasis, disrupt
227 membrane integrity and fluidity and inhibit key reactions involved in bacterial growth
228 or survival (Guan and Liu, 2020; Padan et al., 2005). In addition, pH also plays a critical
229 role in the readjustment of material surface properties by influencing hydrophobicity
230 and electrostatic forces. It can slow or accelerate the corrosion of some materials and
231 can enhance the leaching of their composing elements. Therefore, we performed the
232 experiments at neutral (pH 7.0) and acidic (pH 5.0) conditions. Without the presence of
233 the test surfaces *C. metallidurans* showed comparable growth at pH 5.0 and 7.0 (Figure
234 3). In addition, none of the test surfaces, and any leached elements, affected planktonic
235 growth at pH 5.0 or 7.0 (Figure 3). Leaching of chromium and nickel ions, and
236 aluminum and vanadium ions in biological media have been reported for stainless steel
237 and titanium alloy, respectively (Berggren et al., 2004; Hedberg and Odnevall
238 Wallinder, 2015; Herting et al., 2006; Mumme et al., 2005; Zhou et al., 2011).

239 ***Adhesion and biofilm formation of C. metallidurans CH34 on the test surfaces***

240 Although prolonged contact with the test materials did not affect planktonic growth, the
241 physicochemical differences between the test surfaces did significantly influence
242 adhesion of *C. metallidurans* CH34. Crystal violet staining showed that Teflon and
243 glass were more prone to *C. metallidurans* CH34 adhesion and biofilm formation than
244 TiAl6V4 and SS316 (Figure 4, Supplementary Figure 1) with Teflon having
245 significantly more adherent biomass than glass both in pH 5 and pH 7.0. Determination
246 of viable biofilm cell numbers by plate count was also performed for glass and Teflon
247 (pH 5), and corroborated the quantification by CV staining (Supplementary Figure 2).
248 Adhesion to glass also varied according to the pH as the CV-stained adherent biomass
249 on glass at pH 5.0 was nearly two-fold more important than at pH = 7.0. For Teflon,
250 adhesion was independent of the pH. A previously reported theoretical model predicted
251 that pH variations could influence *S. aureus* adhesion to glass because it alters its
252 hydrophilicity/hydrophobicity (Hamadi et al., 2009). In our experiment, the surface
253 properties of glass were not significantly affected during the experiment (Figure 2),
254 therefore, other factors are putatively responsible for the observed difference between
255 pH 5.0 and 7.0 (Sheng et al., 2008).

256 It is generally assumed that hydrophobic (reduces the strength of repulsion
257 forces between the substratum and bacteria) and rough (creates areas of low shear
258 stress) surfaces are more attractive for microbial adhesion than hydrophilic and smooth
259 ones (Zheng et al., 2021). Indeed, the hydrophobic Teflon surface showed the most
260 adhesion compared to the other materials. High adhesion on Teflon has previously been
261 reported for *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (Alfa et al., 2017), *Salmonella spp.* and *Listeria*
262 *monocytogenes* (Sinde and Carballo, 2000). Although glass is very hydrophilic, with
263 contact angles from $12.3 \pm 2^\circ$ to $25.3 \pm 6.5^\circ$, it was the second most attractive material
264 for *C. metallidurans* CH34 biofilm formation. The capacity of bacteria to attach both to

265 hydrophilic and hydrophobic surfaces has already been observed for *Staphylococcus*
266 *epidermidis* and in *P. aeruginosa* (Cerca et al., 2005; Shelobolina et al., 2018), and was
267 corroborated here for *C. metallidurans*.

268 Stainless steel 316, which was significantly more hydrophobic than glass (Figure
269 1), showed limited *C. metallidurans* CH34 biofilm formation at pH 5.0 and no biofilm
270 formation at pH 7.0. (Figure 4). Interestingly, biofilm formation on stainless steel 304 in
271 mineral water has recently been documented (Maertens et al., 2020). Studies
272 demonstrated the superior capacity of SS316 over SS304 in repelling microbial
273 adhesion in potable water (Percival et al., 1997). These differences could be explained
274 by the different composition of SS316, which contains 2 to 3% of Molybdenum
275 (Percival, 1999), or by specific growth conditions. In addition, SS316 is known to be
276 less vulnerable to corrosion and pitting in the presence of chloride or low pH
277 environments, and also to microbiologically influenced corrosion (Wang et al., 2021).
278 The introduction of Mo in the alloy's formula has therefore significant consequences on
279 the physicochemical properties of the material.

280 Titanium alloy contact angles $41.6 \pm 5.7^\circ$ to $53.8 \pm 4.7^\circ$ were significantly
281 higher than glass. In addition, the alloy showed a rough surface rich in large pits that
282 could have been ideal sites for bacterial cells seeking protection from shear forces.
283 Nevertheless, almost no *C. metallidurans* CH34 biofilm formation was detected (low
284 quantification with large deviations). However, TiAl6V4 surfaces are not invulnerable
285 to bacterial adhesion and can be colonized by *Serratia spp.*, sulphur-oxidizing and
286 sulphate-reducing bacteria (Cwalina et al., 2017) and by clinical isolates of
287 *Streptococcus*, *Staphylococcus* and *Escherichia coli* (Wang et al., 2018). Therefore,
288 properties such as surface hydrophobicity and roughness alone or even combined are
289 not the only factors that mediate bacterial adhesion and the development into a mature

290 biofilm. In fact, Gyo et al. (2008) coined that the relationship between hydrophobicity
291 and biofilm formation is controversial and put forward that the adhesion process in
292 immersed biofilms is even more complicated because of potential anomalies between
293 surface properties and submerged conditions.

294 ***Biofilm architecture***

295 Biofilms were also observed under the SEM. On glass, *C. metallidurans* CH34
296 biofilms grew either as single cells, cells clustered in a polymeric extracellular matrix or
297 dense globular clusters (Figure 5a, b, c and d). On Teflon, the density of single adherent
298 cells was higher than for glass, which is in agreement with CV quantification. The cell
299 clusters were also larger than those observed on glass. In addition, Teflon-adherent
300 clusters were held together and anchored to the surface by a complex filamentous web
301 (Figure 5e, f, g and h). The web was composed of interconnected thin strands of 20 to
302 30 nm width that can reach nearly two μm in length (Figure 5g and h). Interestingly,
303 these filamentous networks were observed neither in glass-adherent *C. metallidurans*
304 CH34 biofilms (Figure 5a, b, c and d) nor in planktonic cells grown in the presence of
305 Teflon and of glass (Supplementary Figure 3). Such structures were reported in biofilms
306 of *Enterococcus faecalis* (Barnes et al., 2012), *P. aeruginosa* (Wang et al., 2015),
307 *Ralstonia solanacearum* (Minh Tran et al., 2016) and *Streptococcus mutans* (Kim et al.,
308 2018), and are most likely composed of extracellular DNA (eDNA). The latter is a key
309 stabilizing element in many bacterial biofilms (Campoccia et al., 2021; Okshevsky and
310 Meyer, 2015; Panlilio and Rice, 2021). The release of eDNA is facilitated either
311 through cellular lysis or via membrane vesicles (Panlilio and Rice, 2021). Indeed, we
312 observed that biofilm cells were covered with outer membrane vesicles (OMVs) of 20
313 to 50 nm width that putatively could release proteins or nucleic acids (Figure 5h). The
314 resulting multilayered structure was capable of capturing solid components present in

315 the media such as suspended crystals or debris, reinforcing further the biofilm (Figure
316 5f). In addition, unique polar protrusions connecting cells in an organized manner were
317 also observed (Supplementary Figure 4). Overall, SEM observations revealed two
318 distinguishable adhesion patterns for *C. metallidurans* CH34, i.e. monolayers of
319 scattered matrix-free cells and complex multilayered clusters or communities.

320 As previously described, glass and Teflon differ drastically in their
321 physicochemical properties and it is possible that these dissimilarities induced a
322 different attachment strategy. In fact, it has been shown that the presence of eDNA
323 significantly increased the cell envelope hydrophobicity of *S. epidermidis* and allowed
324 for a stronger preference to hydrophobic surfaces through acid-base interactions (Das et
325 al., 2010). Likewise, for *C. metallidurans* CH34, eDNA putatively mediated attachment
326 to the hydrophobic surface of Teflon and could be disadvantageous for the adhesion to
327 hydrophilic glass. Many bacteria can actively regulate the release of eDNA (Ibanez de
328 Aldecoa et al., 2017; Minh Tran et al., 2016) and we hypothesize that this is also the
329 case for *C. metallidurans* CH34. To investigate the role of the observed net-like
330 frameworks further, we exposed mature *C. metallidurans* CH34 biofilms on Teflon to
331 DNaseI. This treatment apparently reduced the thickness and cell density at the edge of
332 the cluster, suggesting that eDNA has a role in aggregation and cell build-up at the
333 boundaries of the biofilms (Figure 6). Nevertheless, DNase I treatment did not affect the
334 total adherent biomass quantified via CV (data not shown) and appeared to have a
335 limited effect on the mature biofilms. In addition, it has been shown that the efficiency
336 of DNase treatment was minimal in mature biofilms of *E. coli*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*,
337 *P. aeruginosa* and *S. mutans*, because mature biofilms accumulated more Z-form eDNA
338 that is, unlike the B-form, resistant to DNaseI (Buzzo et al., 2021).

339 ***Elemental release from the test surfaces***

340 Next, the possible release of elements from SS316 and TiAl64, and the role of
341 *C. metallidurans* CH34 herein was investigated. SS316 is mainly composed of iron (at
342 least 65%), next to chromium (16-18%), nickel (10-14%) and molybdenum (2-3%). A
343 significant higher Fe release was observed in the media of abiotic controls at pH 7.0
344 compared to when SS316 was incubated with bacteria (Figure 7, bottom). Gluconate
345 probably acted as a chelator and released Fe from the surface (Sawyer, 1964). Fe
346 leaching from the surface in the presence of *C. metallidurans* is probably reduced as
347 gluconate is consumed. No significant differences in Fe content of the bacterial biomass
348 were observed in the presence or absence of SS316 (Figure 7, bottom). The TiAl6V4
349 alloy contains next to titanium, at least 6% aluminum and 4% vanadium. No significant
350 differences in the aluminum levels of the cell-free supernatant of the biotic samples and
351 abiotic controls were found at pH 5.0 and pH 7.0. Interestingly, when cells were
352 incubated with the TiAl6V4 surface at pH 7.0 the biomass contained nearly 2 times
353 more aluminum compared to the biotic control. This difference was not observed at pH
354 5.0. Overall, this indicated more release of Al from the titanium alloy at pH 7.0. Finally,
355 elemental release from Teflon, which is considered one of the most chemically inert
356 polymers and non-degradable by microorganisms under aerobic and anaerobic
357 conditions, was not investigated.

358 **Conclusions**

359 Our study on biofilm formation of *C. metallidurans* CH34 on four space-
360 relevant surfaces showed that stainless steel SS316 and the titanium alloy TiAl6V4
361 were less prone to biofouling in the tested conditions (i.e. mineral growth medium with
362 gluconate as sole carbon source in turbulent flow conditions). The use of these materials
363 for spaceflight applications, such as water management systems, can thus be beneficial

364 to prevent the build-up of *Cupriavidus metallidurans* biofilms. However, as the
365 contamination in such systems is composed of multiple interacting species, multispecies
366 experiments should be scrutinized in a next step. Interestingly, in the water-dispensing
367 unit designed lately by NASA, stainless steel sections in contact with water were
368 replaced by tubing in Teflon. As we demonstrated here, Teflon surfaces are highly
369 attractive for *Cupriavidus metallidurans* and the frequent dispensing function of such
370 equipment represents a potential entry point for this resilient bacterium (Maryatt, 2018).
371 It is reasonable to assume that coating and grafting of the studied materials with
372 antimicrobials may improve their performance in time as well as versus other bacterial
373 contaminants.

374 Our experiments also revealed that surface hydrophobicity and roughness alone
375 or even combined are not the only factors that drive bacterial adhesion. Despite the
376 differences in their physicochemical characteristics, both hydrophobic fluoropolymeric
377 (Teflon) and hydrophilic borosilicate (glass) material allowed extensive biofilm
378 formation via monolayers of scattered matrix-free cells and complex multilayered
379 clusters or communities. In addition, *C. metallidurans* CH34 likely employs a distinct
380 attachment machinery depending on the physicochemical characteristics of the surface.
381 We showed that filamentous structures described as extracellular DNA networks were
382 specific to the complex multilayered clusters growing on Teflon.

383 These biofilms were only locally sensitive to the enzymatic action of DNaseI,
384 suggesting that the filamentous eDNA mesh may have a specific role in CH34 biofilm's
385 architecture. As such, the use of enzyme-based antifouling products that induce the
386 hydrolysis of DNA should be carefully studied (Okshevsky et al., 2015). These products
387 are reported to weaken biofilm interactions and increase the permeability to
388 antimicrobial treatments (Okshevsky et al., 2015). For developing anti-biofilm protocols

389 it is important to take into account that bacterial adhesion is a complex phenomenon
390 where attached cells from multiple different species can be in different phenotypic and
391 metabolic states and consequently have different sensitivity to treatments.

392 Finally, it is important to remind that water recycling and recovery systems are
393 composed of numerous other materials and all are interacting indirectly through the
394 flowing liquid. Therefore, possible consequences of the observed iron leaching and
395 aluminum accumulation should be investigated in long-term experiments.

396

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669 Figure 1. SEM images of the test materials, i.e. glass (a), stainless steel SS316 (b),
670 Teflon (c) and titanium alloy TiAl6V4 (d).

671 Figure 2: Contact angle measurements of test materials in MM284 at pH 5.0 (red) and
672 pH 7.0 (blue), and water (green). The average values of three independent experiments
673 (n=6) with standard deviations are shown. Brackets indicate which samples within the
674 surface set are statistically different ($p < 0.05$) based on ANOVA and post-hoc Tukey.

675 Figure 3: Growth of *C. metallidurans* CH34 in the absence (black) or presence of glass
676 (red), stainless steel SS316 (blue), titanium alloy TiAl6V4 (green) or Teflon (purple)
677 surface. The average values of three independent experiments with standard deviations
678 are shown.

679 Figure 4. Crystal violet quantification of *C. metallidurans* CH34 biofilm formation after
680 168 hours at pH 5.0 (red) and 7.0 (blue) on the test materials. The average values of
681 three independent experiments with standard deviations are shown. For each pH value,
682 the different letters above the error bars indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$) based
683 on ANOVA and post-hoc Tukey.

684 Figure 5. Representative SEM images of *C. metallidurans* CH34 biofilms on glass (a, b,
685 c and d) and Teflon (e, f, g and h).

686 Figure 6. Effect of DNaseI treatment (b) versus control (a) on Teflon-grown
687 *C. metallidurans* biofilms visualized by crystal violet staining.

688 Figure 7. ICP-MS analysis of Al release from titanium alloy TiAl6V4 (top panel) and
689 Fe from stainless steel SS316 (bottom panel) by *C. metallidurans* CH34 (left) and
690 uninoculated growth medium (middle), and compared with their content in
691 *C. metallidurans* cells (right) for both the liquid (light grey) and bacterial cell (dark
692 grey) fraction. The average values of three independent experiments (n=3) with
693 standard deviations are shown.

694 Supplementary Figure 1: Crystal violet staining illustrating biofilm formation by *C.*
695 *metallidurans* CH34 on glass (left panel) and Teflon (right panel) after 168h in pH 5.0.

696 Supplementary Figure 2: Crystal violet quantification (dark grey) and plate count (light
697 grey) of *C. metallidurans* CH34 biofilm formation after 168 hours at pH 5.0 on glass

698 and Teflon. The average values of three independent experiments with standard
699 deviations are shown. The different letters above the error bars indicate significant
700 differences ($p < 0.05$) based on ANOVA and post-hoc Tukey.

701 Supplementary Figure 2: (a) Planktonic cells of *C.metallidurans* CH34 cultured in the
702 presence of Teflon versus (b) planktonic cells cultured in the presence of glass.

703 Supplementary Figure 3: Polar protrusions and linear organisation of *C.metallidurans*
704 CH34 cells adherent to Teflon.