7 **Single-spore germination analyses reveal that calcium released during *Clostridioides***
8 ***difficile* germination functions in a feed-forward loop.**
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Abstract

Clostridioides difficile infections begin when its metabolically dormant spores germinate in response to sensing bile acid germinants alongside amino acid and divalent cation co-germinants in the small intestine. While bile acid germinants are essential for *C. difficile* spore germination, it is currently unclear whether both co-germinant signals are required. One model proposes that divalent cations, particularly Ca^{2+}, are essential for inducing germination, while another proposes that either co-germinant class can induce germination. The former model is based on the finding that spores defective in releasing large stores of internal Ca^{2+} in the form of calcium dipicolinic acid (CaDPA) cannot germinate when germination is induced with bile acid germinant and amino acid co-germinant alone. However, since the reduced optical density of CaDPA-less spores makes it difficult to accurately measure their germination, we developed a novel automated, time-lapse microscopy-based germination assay to analyze CaDPA mutant germination at the single-spore level. Using this assay, we found that CaDPA mutant spores germinate in the presence of amino acid co-germinant and bile acid germinant. Higher levels of amino acid co-germinants are nevertheless required to induce CaDPA mutant spores to germinate relative to WT spores because CaDPA released by WT spores during germination can function in a feedforward loop to potentiate the germination of other spores within the population. Collectively, these data indicate that Ca^{2+} is not essential for inducing *C. difficile* spore germination because amino acid and Ca^{2+} co-germinant signals are sensed by parallel signaling pathways.

59 **Importance**
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Clostridioides difficile spore germination is essential for this major nosocomial pathogen to

initiate infection. *C. difficile* spores germinate in response to sensing bile acid germinant signals

alongside co-germinant signals. There are two classes of co-germinant signals: Ca^{2+} and amino

acids. Prior work suggested that Ca^{2+} is essential for *C. difficile* spore germination based on

bulk population analyses of germinating CaDPA mutant spores. Since these assays rely on

optical density to measure spore germination and the optical density of CaDPA mutant spores is

reduced relative to WT spores, this bulk assay is limited in its capacity to analyze germination.

To overcome this limitation, we developed an automated image analysis pipeline to monitor *C.*

difficile spore germination using time-lapse microscopy. With this analysis pipeline, we

demonstrate that, although Ca^{2+} is dispensable for inducing *C. difficile* spore germination,

CaDPA can function in a feedforward loop to potentiate the germination of neighboring spores.

Introduction

Clostridioides difficile is the leading cause of nosocomial infections and antibiotic-associated gastroenteritis worldwide. C. difficile causes ~450,000 infections and $5 billion dollars in associated medical costs annually in the United States (1, 2). Prior antibiotic exposure can render otherwise healthy individuals susceptible to C. difficile infections (CDI) because a diverse gut flora provides colonization resistance against CDI (3, 4). Once individuals become infected with C. difficile, they are highly susceptible to subsequent infections, with about one in five individuals experiencing at least one relapse or recurrence of CDI (2). This high incidence of repeat infections is a major contributor to CDI morbidity and mortality.

Both the vegetative and metabolically dormant spore forms of C. difficile contribute to the high rates of C. difficile disease recurrence. Vegetative C. difficile cells produce the glucosylating toxins, TcdA and TcdB, that induce inflammation and perpetuate gut dysbiosis (5), while its aerotolerant spores allow this obligate anaerobe to transmit disease (6). C. difficile spores can survive the antibiotic regimens used to treat C. difficile infections because they are metabolically dormant, and their resistance properties also allow them to survive exposure to commonly used disinfectants. As a result, spores serve as an environment reservoir for seeding future infections (7-10).

C. difficile infections begin when spores ingested by a susceptible individual germinate, i.e. exit dormancy, in response to specific signals sensed in the small intestine (11-13). Since germination is essential for C. difficile to initiate infection, its germination proteins represent promising targets for therapies designed to prevent CDI (13, 14). These proteins are likely to be selective targets because C. difficile uses a unique signaling pathway to initiate spore germination relative to previously characterized spore-forming bacteria such as Bacillus subtilis and Clostridium perfringens (15, 16). Almost all spore-formers use transmembrane Ger-type germinant receptors found in the inner spore membrane (17) to sense nutrient signals (e.g. amino acids and sugars) and induce germination (16, 18). In contrast, C. difficile is one of only two spore-formers known to lack Ger-type germinant receptors (19). Instead, C. difficile uses the soluble pseudoprotease CspC to sense cholate-derived bile acid germinants (20), which are found exclusively in the gastrointestinal tract of metazoans (21, 22).

Notably, bile acid germinants alone cannot induce C. difficile spore germination because they must be combined with co-germinant signal(s) (11). These co-germinant signals belong to two classes: amino acids and divalent cations (23, 24). Glycine is the most potent amino acid co-germinant (23, 25), and Ca^{2+} is the most potent divalent cation co-germinant (24, 26). While the chemical nature of these co-germinant signals has been well characterized, the molecular

mechanism by which they are physically sensed in *C. difficile* remains unclear. This is because

mutations in two separate genes alter co-germinant sensing. Certain mutations in the *cspBA*

gene, which encodes a fusion of the CspB protease to the CspA pseudoprotease (27), allow *C.*

difficile spores to germinate independent of co-germinant signals, namely in the presence of bile

acids alone (28). Since these mutations alter the site of interdomain processing in CspBA, which

changes the N-terminus of CspA (29), the CspA pseudoprotease has been proposed to function

as the receptor for both amino acid and Ca^{2+} co-germinants (28). While specific CspA mutations

allow *C. difficile* to bypass the need for co-germinants (28), specific amino acid substitutions in

CspC, the bile acid germinant receptor, can also alter the sensitivity of *C. difficile* spores to

distinct classes of co-germinants (30). These observations indicate that CspC plays a key role in

integrating signals from bile acid germinants *and* the two distinct co-germinant classes via an

unknown mechanism.

In response to sensing germinants and co-germinants, CspC and CspA somehow

activate the CspB protease (11, 13). This allows activated CspB to proteolytically activate the

cortex lytic enzyme, SleC (27), which then degrades the cortex, a protective layer of modified

peptidoglycan critical for maintaining the metabolic dormancy of spores. Degradation of the

cortex activates the mechanosensitive SpoVAC channel in the inner spore membrane (31-33),

leading to the release of large internal stores of the spore-specific small molecule, calcium

dipicolinic acid (CaDPA), from the spore core (34). This allows water to enter the partially

dehydrated spore core, leading to the resumption of metabolism and subsequent outgrowth of

the germinating spore into a vegetative cell.

Even though several proteins involved in transducing germinant and co-germinant

signals have been identified, there is still considerable debate regarding how *C. difficile* senses

the two distinct classes of co-germinant signals. Kochan *et al*. first identified that Ca^{2+} is a potent

co-germinant for *C. difficile* spores (24). Kochan *et al.* also showed that a CaDPA-less mutant

cannot germinate in the presence of bile acid germinant and amino acid co-germinant alone and

that the Ca^{2+} chelator, EGTA, can inhibit germination induced under these conditions (24).

These findings led them to propose that Ca^{2+} is absolutely required for *C. difficile* spore

germination, perhaps because Ca^{2+} is used as a co-factor by a key germination protein like

CspB (12, 24). According to this 'lock-and-key' model, the two classes of co-germinants function

sequentially in the same signaling pathway, but only Ca^{2+} is absolutely required as a co-

germinant. The alternative model is that either co-germinant class can potentiate bile acid-

induced germination (11, 13) such that there are parallel mechanisms for sensing the chemically

distinct amino acid and Ca^{2+} co-germinant signals. This model is supported by the identification

of specific CspC amino acid substitutions that sensitize spores to either amino acid or divalent

cation co-germinants (30).

In this study, we distinguish between these models by rigorously assessing the

requirement for Ca^{2+} during *C. difficile* spore germination in a panel of CaDPA-less mutant

spores. As CaDPA-less spores are less optically dense than spores containing CaDPA (35), it

can be challenging to use traditional optical density-based methods to measure the germination

of bulk populations. To overcome these limitations, we developed a novel time-lapse

microscopy-based method to simultaneously measure the germination kinetics of hundreds of

spores in a given experiment using automated image analysis. With this single-spore

germination assay, we determined that germination induced by glycine co-germinant and bile

acid germinant (i.e. in the absence of added Ca^{2+}) is less efficient in CaDPA-less spores relative

to WT. We further showed that this difference in germination behavior is because endogenous

Ca^{2+} released from WT spores in the form of CaDPA during germination can function in a

positive feedback loop to promote the germination of neighboring spores. Taken together, our

data strongly suggest that parallel pathways transduce signals from amino acid and Ca^{2+} co-

germinant classes and support a model in which CspC and CspA function in concert to integrate

signals from multiple environmental sources to initiate infection.

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Results

Phenotypic characterization of CaDPA mutant spores.

The proposal that Ca^{2+} is absolutely required for *C. difficile* spore germination is largely

based on the finding that spores lacking CaDPA fail to germinate when germination is induced

by bile acid germinant taurocholate (TA) and glycine co-germinant alone (24). Since the mutant

spores in this study lack CaDPA due to the loss of a previously uncharacterized putative ATP-

binding protein, CD3298, we sought to analyze the germination phenotypes of additional

CaDPA mutant spores lacking known regulators of either CaDPA synthesis or transport into the

spore core. Namely, we deleted *dpaAB*, *spoVV*, and *spoVAC* using the *pyrE*-based allelic

exchange system from the 630Δ*erm*Δ*pyrE* strain background. *dpaAB* encodes the enzyme

complex that synthesizes CaDPA (**Fig 1A,** (35, 36)), while SpoVV and SpoVAC are critical in *B.*

subtilis for transporting CaDPA across the outer and then inner forespore membranes,

respectively (37, 38) (**Fig 1A**). SpoVV function was first established in *B. subtilis* (37), whereas

SpoVAC has been shown to transport CaDPA into the spore core in several spore-formers,

including *C. difficile* (32, 35, 39-43). CD3298 may act as an accessory protein for the SpoVV or

the SpoVAC transporter, although CD3298 lacks a signal sequence ((24), **Fig 1A**).

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Consistent with prior work (24, 35), CaDPA was largely undetectable in Δ*dpaAB,*

Δ*spoVAC* and Δ*cd3298* spores when spores were boiled to artificially release their CaDPA

stores, and CaDPA was detected based on its terbium fluorescence (35, 45) (**Fig 1B**). Loss of

SpoVV greatly reduced CaDPA levels, although Δ*spoVV* spores contained ~5-fold higher levels

of CaDPA than Δ*dpaAB* mutant spores. While this difference was not statistically significant, the

elevated levels of CaDPA in Δ*spoVV* spores suggests that SpoVV may not be absolutely

required for CaDPA transport into *C. difficile* spores. Importantly, complementation of the mutant

strains with their respective genes from the *pyrE* locus under the control of their native

promoters restored CaDPA levels within the spore core (**Fig 1B**), although Δ*dpaAB/dpaAB*

spores had ~two-fold higher CaDPA levels than WT 630Δ*erm* spores (35).

We next compared the spore purification efficiencies of the CaDPA mutant spores. We

used a reduced Histodenz concentration because CaDPA mutant spores are less dense due to

their greater hydration (35). Consistent with our prior analyses of JIR8094 strain *dpaAB* mutant

spores (35), loss of DpaAB, SpoVAC, and CD3298 decreased spore purification efficiency by

~two-fold (**Fig S1**), while loss of SpoVV did not affect the spore purification efficiency relative to

WT. The complementation strains were purified at efficiencies comparable to WT, and ~two-fold

more Δ*dpaAB/dpaAB* spores were isolated relative to WT, in keeping with their two-fold higher

levels of CaDPA relative to WT (**Fig S1**).

As a proxy for measuring core dehydration, we compared the intensity of our mutant

spores during phase-contrast microscopy analyses because spores are more "phase-bright"

when they are more dehydrated (35, 46, 47). By combining the MicrobeJ plug-in for ImageJ

(44) with manual curation to measure the intensity of individual spores by phase-contrast

microscopy, we found that CaDPA mutants were ~25-30% less phase-bright than WT spores;

Δ*CD3298* and Δ*spoVAC* spores were the least phase-bright on average (**Figs 1C, S1**).

Consistent with prior research indicating that core hydration is inversely correlated with

heat resistance (35, 48, 49), CaDPA mutant spores were highly sensitive to heat treatment (**Fig**

S2), whereas WT and complementation strain spores were resistant to 80˚C heat treatment for

15 minutes. Δ*spoVV* spores were the most heat-resistant of the CaDPA mutant spores tested,

since they maintained WT heat resistance up to 65˚C, so the small amount of CaDPA present in

$\Delta spoVV$ spores (**Fig 1B**) would appear to confer some wet heat resistance to these spores.

$\Delta CD3298$ and $\Delta spoVAC$ spores were the least heat-resistant, with even a 15 min treatment at

50˚C reducing their spore viability (**Fig S2**). The increased sensitivity of $\Delta spoVAC$ and $\Delta CD3298$

spores to heat relative to $dpaAB$ mutant spores suggests that CD3298 may function alongside

SpoVAC to transport molecules in addition to CaDPA during spore formation.

CaDPA mutant spores appear to germinate less efficiently in optical density-based

measurements

To assess the germination properties of CaDPA mutant spores, we used a well-

established germination assay to monitor their decrease in optical density over time as spores

degrade their cortex and hydrate their core. We previously used this assay to show that $dpaAB$

and $spoVAC$ mutant spores decrease in optical density less than WT spores because the

mutant spores are more hydrated (35). Similar to these prior findings, the optical density of

CaDPA-less ($\Delta dpaAB$, $\Delta spoVAC$, and $\Delta CD3298$) spores decreased less than WT spores (35%

vs. 50% decrease, respectively). Consistent with $\Delta spoVV$ spores containing some CaDPA (**Fig**

1C), the optical density decrease was $\Delta spoVV$ spores was intermediate between WT and

CaDPA-less spores (**Fig 1D**). $\Delta cspC$ spores exhibited no change in OD_{600} because they lack the

putative TA germinant receptor (20), while spores from the complementation strains exhibited

WT-like reductions in OD_{600} (**Fig 1D**). Notably, although the relative OD_{600} decrease in CaDPA

mutant spores was less than WT, their initial bulk germination rates (as defined as the average

OD_{600} decrease over the first 6 min of germination) in rich media containing TA germinant were

identical to WT irrespective of the TA concentration used. These data suggest that CaDPA

mutants sense germinants and hydrolyze their cortex with efficiencies similar to WT in rich

media containing TA germinant. These results are similar to what has been previously reported

for the germination response of $\Delta dpaAB$ spores (35) and $\Delta CD3298$ (24) spores in rich media

containing taurocholate.

Spores lacking CaDPA do not require exogenous Ca^{2+} to germinate

$\Delta CD3298$ spores were previously reported to be incapable of germinating when

germination is induced with TA germinant and glycine co-germinant alone (i.e. in the absence of

endogenous or exogenous Ca^{2+}, (24)), suggesting that Ca^{2+} is absolutely required for *C. difficile*

spores to germinate. To rigorously test this proposal, we compared the germination responses

of a panel of CaDPA mutant spores when germination is induced in the presence of TA germinant and either glycine vs. Ca^{2+} co-germinant. We initially used TA germinant and co-germinant concentrations that led to similar decreases in optical density as when we induced germination in rich media containing 1% (19 mM) TA for WT spores (**Fig 1D**). When CaDPA mutant spores were germinated in the presence of 1% (19 mM) TA and 10 mM glycine, they exhibited a similar loss in optical density (**Fig 2A**) as when they were induced to germinate in rich media (**Fig 1D**) or Ca^{2+} buffer containing TA germinant (**Fig 2B**). However, the initial rate at which CaDPA-less spores decrease in optical density was more gradual than for WT spores, especially for Δ*spoVAC* spores, indicating that CaDPA-less spores germinate more slowly as a population than WT spores in the presence of 1% (19 mM) TA and 10 mM glycine (**Fig 2A**). Regardless of the germinant and co-germinant concentrations used, i.e. rich media, TA + glycine, or TA + Ca^{2+}, CaDPA mutant spores exhibited smaller decreases in optical density than WT spores (**Fig 1C**). Collectively, these results strongly suggest that Ca^{2+} is not absolutely required for *C. difficile* spore germination. However, CaDPA release appears to increase the average rate at which WT spores as a population germinate in response to TA germinant and glycine co-germinant based on bulk optical density-based germination analyses.

Since these results contrasted with those of Kochan *et al.*, who failed to observe Δ*CD3298* spore germination in the presence of TA and glycine co-germinant alone in OD_{600}-based assays, we repeated these analyses using the same conditions employed by these authors (24). Accordingly, we lowered the TA concentration to 0.2% (3.8 mM) and increased the glycine concentrations to 20 and 50 mM glycine. Under these conditions, WT spores germinated after a delay of ~20 min in 20 mM glycine + 0.2% (3.8 mM) TA and ~9 min in 50 mM glycine + 0.2% (3.8 mM) TA (**Figs 2C & D**). Although CaDPA mutant spores did not appear to germinate at the lower glycine co-germinant concentration (20 mM) with 0.2% (3.8 mM) TA relative to the Δ*cspC* control, their OD_{600} decreased by 10-15% after 60 min when glycine co-germinant concentrations were increased to 50 mM glycine with 0.2% (3.8 mM) TA, (**Fig 2D**, $p < 0.01$).

Since the increased hydration of CaDPA mutant spores complicates the interpretation of germination kinetics in the optical density-based assay, we analyzed germination using an optical density-independent method. To this end, we assessed the proteolytic activation of the cortex-degrading enzyme, SleC, by the CspB protease over time when germination was induced with TA germinant and glycine co-germinant in CaDPA-less mutant spores using western blotting. Under these conditions, the Δ*dpaAB* and Δ*CD3298* spores cleaved pro-SleC at levels indistinguishable from WT spores and with similar kinetics (**Fig 2E**), confirming that internal Ca^{2+} release is not required for *C. difficile* spores to initiate germination in the presence

of TA and glycine co-germinant alone. Notably, Kochan *et al*. also observed some pro-SleC

cleavage in Δ*cd3298* spores germinated in the presence of TA and glycine alone (24),

highlighting how the optical density-based germination assay has reduced sensitivity in

detecting germination in CaDPA mutant spores. Taken together, these data further support the

conclusion that Ca^{2+} is not absolutely required to induce *C. difficile* spore germination as a co-

germinant.

Spores lacking CaDPA require higher levels of glycine co-germinant to germinate

Since CaDPA mutant spores appeared to germinate more slowly than WT spores in the

presence of low levels of glycine co-germinant + TA germinant in the population-based optical

density assays (**Figs 2A-B**), CaDPA release during *C. difficile* spore germination may serve to

enhance TA + amino acid-induced spore germination. To directly test this possibility, we

compared the bulk germination rates of CaDPA mutant spores in the presence of a fixed

amount of TA germinant as we titrated either glycine or Ca^{2+} co-germinant. In the presence of

increasing concentrations of Ca^{2+} and a fixed TA concentration (0.5%, 9.5 mM), the germination

rate of WT spores increased steadily until it reached a maximum average rate at 7.5 mM Ca^{2+}

(**Figs 3A-B**). Germination rate was defined as the average change in OD_{600} in the first 6 min of

the assay. CaDPA mutant spores appeared to germinate at similar rates as WT spores at lower

Ca^{2+} concentrations; however, at 7.5 mM Ca^{2+} and above, CaDPA mutant spores appeared to

germinate more slowly than WT spores (**Fig 3B**). This apparent reduction in germination rate is

likely due to the increased hydration of CaDPA mutant spores decreasing the dynamic range of

the optical density-based germination assay (**Fig 3A**). Thus, CaDPA mutants would appear to

exhibit WT responses to Ca^{2+} co-germinant in the presence of TA germinant.

We next assessed how CaDPA-less spores germinate relative to WT spores when

germination is induced in the presence of increasing glycine co-germinant and a fixed TA

concentration (1%, 19 mM TA). This higher concentration of TA was needed to reliably detect

germination during the 60 min analysis time frame when germination was induced with TA +

glycine co-germinant alone. Both WT and CaDPA-less spores exhibited a lag-phase to their

germination, producing a sigmoidal vs. exponential decrease in OD_{600} (**Fig 3C**). Due to this lag,

we expanded the time frame for which we calculated the average germination rate from 0 - 15

minutes rather than 0 - 6 minutes. Even when germination was induced with high glycine (10

mM) and 1% (19 mM) TA, CaDPA mutant spores appeared to germinate more slowly relative to

WT (**Fig 3D**). The apparent germination rate of CaDPA mutant spores was decreased relative to

WT spores at all glycine co-germinant concentrations tested (**Fig 3D**). Furthermore, CaDPA

mutant spores required concentrations of 2.5 mM glycine to induce appreciable germination at

60 min in the optical density-based assay, whereas WT spore germination was detectable at 4-

fold lower concentrations of glycine (0.625 mM) (**Figs 3C-D**). Taken together, our data indicate

that CaDPA mutant spores are less sensitive to glycine co-germinant than WT spores. In

addition, WT spores appear to germinate more slowly as a population when germination is

induced in the presence of TA + glycine co-germinant compared to TA + Ca^{2+} co-germinant (**Fig**

3).

Development of an automated image analysis pipeline for quantifying spore germination

using time-lapse microscopy

Although the bulk germination analyses strongly suggested that internal Ca^{2+} can potentiate WT

spore germination, they also underscored the challenges associated with measuring the

germination kinetics of CaDPA mutant spores because the dynamic range of optical density-

based germination assays is reduced in CaDPA mutant spores because of their hydrated

nature. Notably, our western blot analyses of the proteolytic activation of SleC over time (**Fig**

2E) suggested that we may be missing germination events during the time frame of the OD-

based assays since these bulk germination assays cannot detect if a small fraction of spores

germinate within a population (< 5%, (51)). Furthermore, the assay can only be run for ~60-90

min in a plate reader because spores start to settle over time. Indeed, the OD_{600} of $\Delta cspC$

spores decreases during this assay over time even though they are defective in inducing

germination, as evidenced by their constant phase-bright intensity over time ((30), **Fig 4**). It is

also difficult to distinguish between spores that initiate germination more slowly vs.

heterogeneously using bulk optical density-based assays. Since directly monitoring the

germination of individual spores using time-lapse microscopy would overcome many of these

limitations, we developed an automated time-lapse microscopy germination assay for analyzing

germination kinetics at the single-spore level (**Fig 4A**). When observed under phase-contrast

microscopy, "phase-bright" dormant spores become "phase-dark" during germination as the

cortex is degraded and the spore core becomes hydrated. To increase the number of spores

that we could analyze with this microscopy-based assay, we developed an automated image

analysis pipeline (PySpore) to analyze the germination of hundreds of individual spores in a

given field-of-view. The PySpore program allows us to determine the time to germination (T_G)

and the germination rates of individual spores, with T_G being defined as when spores first start

to decrease in phase-contrast intensity due to spore germination, and germination rate being

defined as the maximum absolute rate of change of a 1-D smoothing spline fitted to the mean

intensity of a given spore over the course of the assay. The maximum rate was calculated from

the first derivative of the spline which was evaluated at each timepoint (**Fig S3**).

While single-spore germination assays have been developed previously (52, 53),

developing *automated* analyses of individual germinating spores has been challenging for

several reasons. WT dormant spores vary in their "phase-contrast" intensity, while the intensity

(refractive index of the spore core) of germinating spores decreases over time as the spores

become more hydrated (53)). As a result, it is difficult to set a universal threshold that correctly

identifies all dormant spores at the start of a movie (**Fig 1C**). For example, when we tried to

apply SporeTracker X, a previously developed automated image analysis program developed

for *B. subtilis* spores (52), only ~40% of *C. difficile* spores in our movie were correctly identified

in the first frame (**Fig S4**).

To overcome the thresholding issue, we reasoned that the fixed intensity of the phase-

dark spore coat would allow us to segment and track spores from frame-to-frame even as the

intensity of their core as measured by phase-contrast microscopy changes over time during

germination (**Fig 4A**). By segmenting spores based on their dark outline, we were able to

identify >90% of spores in a given frame, improving the fidelity of spore segmentation by two-

fold over SporeTrackerX (**Fig S4**, (52)).

To validate our PySpore analysis method, we analyzed the germination of *C. difficile*

mutant spores with defects in cortex hydrolysis. Δ*cwlD* and Δ*pdaA* cortex modification mutants

degrade their cortex layer more slowly because they lack muramic-∂-lactam, a spore-specific

peptidoglycan modification that is recognized by the main cortex lytic enzyme, SleC (51, 54). In

the optical density-based bulk germination assay, Δ*cwlD* spores do not appear to germinate

because their OD_{600} stays largely constant, while the OD_{600} of Δ*pdaA* spores decreases slightly

(~10% after 3 hrs). When we analyzed the germination properties of these mutant spores on

agarose pads containing BHIS and 0.5% (9.5 mM) TA relative to WT spores using time-lapse

microscopy (**Fig 4B**), we found that a small percentage (~5%) of Δ*cwlD* spores germinated

during the 2 hr assay period (**Fig 4C**), with germinating spores being defined as those that

decrease in intensity by >20%. In contrast, ~40% of Δ*pdaA* spores germinated over the 2 hr

assay albeit with considerably delayed kinetics relative to WT spores. Indeed, WT spores

germinated rapidly and uniformly under these conditions, with most WT spores completing

germination within ~5 min of being exposed to germinant. In contrast, the median "time to

germination" for Δ*pdaA* and Δ*cwlD* spores was ~50 min (**Fig 4D**). Furthermore, these mutant

spores germinated more slowly at the single-spore level, with the median germination rate for a

given spore being ~3-fold slower than the rate measured for WT spores (**Fig 4E**). It should be

noted that many WT spores had already completed germination within the 2.5 min required to

set up a movie (**Figs 4C, 4F**), so the median germination time shown for WT spores is an

underestimate. Spores that had already germinated were identified by setting an intensity

threshold to identify phase-dark spores whose intensity did not change over the assay length

but had clearly completed germination. Regardless, the slower germination rate and delays in

time to initiation of $\Delta cwlD$ and $\Delta pdaA$ spores are consistent with their cortex modification

defects, which decreases the efficiency with which the SleC cortex lytic enzyme degrades the

unmodified cortex of these mutant spores (51, 54). Since germinant sensing is unaffected in

$\Delta cwlD$ and $\Delta pdaA$ spores, the delays in the "time to germination" and the slower germination

rates measured for these mutant spores likely reflect how both time-lapse microscopy and

optical density-based germination assays depend on the cortex being degraded and the core

becoming hydrated in order for changes in spore intensity or optical density to be detected (51,

54). As a result, the "time to germination" measurement reflects the initiation of germination (i.e.

germinant and co-germinant signal transduction), degradation of the cortex, and hydration of the

core. Regardless, these observations indicate that our time-lapse, single-spore germination

assay yields data consistent with prior optical density-based germination analyses of $\Delta cwlD$ and

$\Delta pdaA$ spores (51). Furthermore, the single-spore analyses (**Fig 4F**) provide additional insight

into the germination properties of these cortex modification mutant spores by sensitively

revealing their heterogeneous germination, delayed time to germination, and reduced

germination rate.

Single-spore time-lapse germination analyses of $\Delta dpaAB$ spores reveal differences in

their germination responses to glycine vs. Ca^{2+} co-germinants

Having established the utility of our single-spore germination assay, we next used it to analyze

the germination of CaDPA-less spores in the presence of TA + glycine alone (i.e. the absence

of added Ca^{2+}). WT and $\Delta dpaAB$ spores were induced to germinate in the presence of 0.2%

(3.8 mM) TA with 10 mM glycine. The TA concentration was lowered to 0.2% (3.8 mM) to

capture most of the phase-bright spores transitioning to phase-dark spores within the 2.5 min

needed to set up the time-lapse microscopy movies. In the presence of 0.2% (3.8 mM) TA and

10 mM glycine, approximately half as many $\Delta dpaAB$ spores germinated during the assay as WT

spores (**Fig 5A**), and their germination rate, as defined by the decrease in phase intensity over

time, was slower relative to WT (**Fig 5B**).

Interestingly, the germination rates measured for WT spores were more heterogenous

relative to Δ*dpaAB* spores, perhaps because CaDPA released from other WT spores can

promote the germination of neighboring spores. Consistent with this hypothesis, no difference in

the proportion of germinating Δ*dpaAB* and WT spores was observed over time using the single-

spore assay when germination was induced with 0.2% (3.8 mM) TA and 30 mM Ca^{2+} (**Fig 5A**).

Despite these similarities, individual Δ*dpaAB* spores still germinated more slowly than WT

spores, similar to our observations with TA + glycine-induced germination (**Figs 5B-C**). Again,

this slower apparent germination rate is likely due to the greater hydration of CaDPA mutant

spores, which reduces the concentration gradient between the spore core relative to the

surrounding media such that Δ*dpaAB* spores likely do not hydrate as quickly as WT spores.

Importantly, the aggregated single-spore germination data (**Fig 5C**) was similar to bulk optical

density-based germination analyses (**Fig S5**).

While these observations highlight the complexities in measuring the germination of

CaDPA mutant spores using phase-contrast microscopy, the single-spore germination data (i)

clearly demonstrate that these mutant spores can germinate in the presence of TA + glycine

alone, i.e. in the absence of added Ca^{2+} and (ii) suggest that internal Ca^{2+} release can

potentiate the germination of other spores within the population.

Ca^{2+} released from the spore core during germination is a "public good" that can be

sensed by other spores

To directly test the hypothesis that CaDPA released by spores can serve as a "public

good" to promote the germination of other spores in the population, we compared the ability of

germination "exudates" released from germinating WT and Δ*dpaAB* spores to induce the

germination of "naïve" WT spores (i.e. not previously exposed to germinant) in our time-lapse

microscopy assay. WT and Δ*dpaAB* spores were induced to germinate in the presence of low

glycine (2.5 mM) and TA (0.5%, 9.5 mM) concentrations for 16 hrs. This extended incubation

time was necessary to allow the population of Δ*dpaAB* spores to fully germinate, since they

complete germination more slowly than WT cells under these conditions (**Fig 6A**). During this

incubation time, WT spores release CaDPA into the supernatant fraction, while Δ*dpaAB* do not.

We reasoned that WT germination exudates, which contain CaDPA released by these spores,

would promote the germination of "naïve" WT spores more readily when incorporated into

agarose pads than germination exudates of $\Delta dpaAB$ spores, which do not contain released

CaDPA (**Fig 6A**). Indeed, when "naïve" WT spores were spotted onto agarose pads made from

WT germination exudates, a greater proportion of these spores induced germination relative to

spores spotted onto pads made of mock-treated buffer, which contains the 2.5 mM glycine and

0.5% (9.5 mM) TA originally used to prepare the WT and $\Delta dpaAB$ germination exudates.

Similarly, fewer WT spores germinated when spotted onto pads made with germination exudate

prepared from $\Delta dpaAB$ spores, which lacks CaDPA in the exudate fraction (**Fig 6B**). These

findings strongly suggest that CaDPA released into WT germination exudates potentiates the

germination of other spores in the population.

To more directly link the ability of WT germination exudates to promote germination to

the CaDPA released into these extracts, we supplemented $\Delta dpaAB$ germination exudates with

Ca^{2+} as a proxy for CaDPA (Ca^{2+} is in a one-to-one complex with DPA in the core). To match

the Ca^{2+} levels in WT germination exudates, we first measured the DPA concentration in WT

germination exudates using terbium chloride. These analyses indicated that supplementing

$\Delta dpaAB$ germination exudates with 0.2 mM calcium chloride should mimic the concentration of

Ca^{2+} in WT germination exudates. When 0.2 mM $CaCl_2$ was added to $\Delta dpaAB$ germination

exudates, the supplemented agarose pads rapidly induced germination in the population of WT

spores. Since sub-millimolar levels of Ca^{2+} were able to reduce median germination times by

~3-fold, these data highlight how Ca^{2+} and glycine co-germinants can synergize to induce WT

spore germination, similar to a previous report by Kochan *et al*. (24). Taken together, our data

indicate that internal Ca^{2+} released from germinating spores potentiates the germination of other

spores within the population. Accordingly, CaDPA-less spores are less sensitive to glycine co-

germinant because they do not release CaDPA and thus cannot potentiate the germination of

other spores within the population.

Ca^{2+} appears to be required for a step downstream of (co-)germinant signaling

Although we used multiple germination analyses to demonstrate that endogenous Ca^{2+}

release is not necessary for germination stimulated in the presence of TA + glycine alone (Figs

2, 3, 5, and 6), Ca^{2+} may still be needed at low concentrations to regulate a factor required for a

germination step downstream of germinant and co-germinant signaling. Kochan *et al*. provided

evidence that Ca^{2+} may be needed as a co-factor when they showed that EGTA at a

concentration < 50 μM was sufficient to inhibit germination induced by 0.2% TA and 50 mM

glycine (Fig 2A). Addition of excess Ca^{2+} (1 mM) was sufficient to counteract the effects of

EGTA (Fig 2B, Kochan *et al*. 2017) and restore spore germination. Taken together, these

analyses with EGTA suggest that Ca^{2+} is required at concentrations < 50 μM for germination for

germination to proceed if Ca^{2+} serves as a co-factor.

In contrast, for Ca^{2+} to serve as the sole co-germinant source to promote TA-induced

germination, Ca^{2+} must be supplied at 2-5 mM concentrations (i.e. 100-fold higher) to function

as a co-germinant to promote germination at ~50% maximal levels in the presence of 0.2-0.5%

(3.8-9.5 mM) TA (**Fig 3B**, Kochan *et al*. 2017). However, it is also important to note that the

Ca^{2+} and glycine co-germinants can synergize with TA germinant such that low μM levels of

Ca^{2+} can stimulate germination in the presence of glycine and TA (Kochan *et al*. 2019, **Fig 6B**

current manuscript). As a result, it can be challenging to distinguish between the ability of Ca^{2+}

to potentiate germination as a co-germinant versus its requirement as a co-factor for

germination to proceed.

To attempt to distinguish between these possibilities, we titrated the Ca^{2+} chelator,

EGTA, to determine the minimum concentration needed to inhibit the germination of WT and

Δ*dpaAB* spores. For these experiments, we induced germination using the same conditions

used by Kochan *et al*., who previously showed that 50 μM EGTA potently inhibits WT spore

germination induced by 0.2% (3.8 mM) TA and 50 mM glycine (Kochan *et al*. 2017). These

analyses revealed that EGTA inhibited germination at concentrations between 2 and 10 μM

EGTA for both WT and Δ*dpaAB* spores (newly added **Fig 7A**). Interestingly, at 10 μM EGTA, we

observed that some WT spore preparations induced germination ~70 min into the 90 min assay,

suggesting that some WT spores are able to release CaDPA to sufficient levels to promote

germination to function in the positive feedback loop described in Fig 6. Taken together, these

analyses indicate that Ca^{2+} is needed at concentrations between 2-10 μM for germination to

proceed under the conditions tested.

To more directly assess whether Ca^{2+} functions as a co-germinant to stimulate

germination versus as a co-factor required for germination to proceed when induced by TA +

glycine, we compared the effect of chelating Ca^{2+} using 5 μM EGTA versus adding Ca^{2+} as a

co-germinant. Since we observed variation in the levels of inhibition by EGTA at 5 μM in WT

spores (**Fig S6**) (presumably due to the variable of endogenous Ca^{2+} release in these analyses

participating in a feedforward loop, Fig. 7A), we determined the effect of 5 μM EGTA vs. Ca^{2+} on

Δ*dpaAB* spores only. In the presence of 0.2% (3.8 mM) TA and 50 mM glycine, 5 μM EGTA

largely inhibited germination, while 5 μM $CaCl_2$ supplementation did not promote germination

above the TA + glycine alone condition (**Fig 7B**). When both 5 μM EGTA and 5 μM $CaCl_2$ were

added to Δ*dpaAB* spores induced to germinate in the presence of 0.2% (3.8 mM) TA and 50

mM glycine, CaCl$_2$ was able to partially counteract the inhibitory effect of EGTA (**Fig 7B**). Since

low µM concentrations of Ca^{2+} were insufficient to synergize with the glycine co-germinant

present in the assay, whereas equivalent concentrations of the Ca^{2+} chelator EGTA were able to

inhibit germination under these conditions, these results are consistent with Ca^{2+} being required

for a germination step downstream of germinant and co-germinant signaling. Thus, it is likely

that Ca^{2+} is required as a co-factor for a protein critical for germination to proceed.

Discussion

Unlike previously studied spore-formers, the nosocomial pathogen *C. difficile* requires

multiple environmental signals to induce germination (11, 13, 18). While *C. difficile*'s use of bile

acids as a germinant signal has been well-established (23), the precise requirement for amino

acid and divalent cation co-germinants during *C. difficile* germinant sensing has been a matter

of debate, with some groups proposing that divalent cations, namely Ca^{2+}, are essential for *C.*

difficile germination (24). In this study, we used a panel of CaDPA mutants and several

independent germination assays (optical density, single-spore, time-lapse microscopy, and

western blotting, **Figs 2, 4, 5**) to show that Ca^{2+} is not absolutely required as a co-germinant

signal for *C. difficile* spore germination. Specifically, we demonstrate that *C. difficile* mutants that

lack internal Ca^{2+} stores in the form of CaDPA can still germinate when exposed to bile acid and

amino acid co-germinants alone. However, under these conditions, CaDPA mutant spores

require higher concentrations of amino acid co-germinants and longer incubation times (**Figs**

2,5). While our analyses indicate that Ca^{2+} is not required as a co-germinant signal to induce

germination stimulated by TA + glycine alone, our analyses of germination induced by TA +

glycine in the presence of EGTA and/or exogenous Ca^{2+} suggest that trace levels of Ca^{2+} are

required for a germination step downstream of germinant sensing and signaling. Thus, Ca^{2+} is

likely needed as a co-factor for an enzyme required during germination (but not germinant or co-

germinant sensing).

Notably, these data indicate that *either* class of co-germinant can stimulate *C. difficile*

spore germination when combined with TA germinant, our findings strongly suggest that these

two distinct classes of co-germinants are sensed by distinct mechanisms in *C. difficile*. This

conclusion is supported by our prior genetic data, which identified specific substitutions in the

CspC bile acid germinant receptor that sensitize *C. difficile* spores to specific classes of co-

germinant (30). While the molecular basis for distinguishing between these distinct co-germinant

classes is unclear, the CspA pseudoprotease clearly plays an important role in regulating co-

germinant sensing given that certain CspA mutations bypass the need for either class of co-

germinant signals (28). Since our data indicate that parallel pathways mediate co-germinant

sensing, CspA may function downstream of the actual co-germinant sensor rather than as the

direct sensor of both classes of co-germinants. Distinguishing between these different models

awaits future biochemical identification of the direct sensors of amino acids and Ca^{2+},

respectively. Regardless, our data suggest that distinct regions of the same receptor or two

distinct receptors are involved in sensing amino acid and Ca^{2+} co-germinant signals,

respectively.

Notably, rigorously assessing the requirement for Ca^{2+} as a co-germinant signal during

C. difficile spore germination required that we optimize a method for directly monitoring spore

germination at the single-cell level (**Fig 3**). This method was necessary because the lack of

CaDPA in these mutant spores made it difficult to use traditional optical density-based assays to

accurately monitor their germination over time. By coupling time-lapse microscopy analyses of

individual spores to our custom image analysis pipeline (**Fig 4**), we were able to demonstrate

that CaDPA-less spores still germinate when germination is induced by TA + glycine alone, i.e.

in the absence of added Ca^{2+}, although a smaller fraction of $\Delta dpaAB$ spores germinated under

these conditions relative to WT or to $\Delta dpaAB$ spores germinated with taurocholate and calcium

(**Fig 4**), highlighting how CaDPA release can potentiate germination of other spores within the

population. Indeed, our germination exudate experiments allowed us to demonstrate that

CaDPA released during *C. difficile* spore germination forms a feedforward loop that potentiates

the germination of neighboring spores when germination is induced by TA and amino acid

germinants alone (**Fig 5**). While the physiological significance of this feedforward loop remains

unclear, it is possible that local changes in Ca^{2+} within the gut could promote *C. difficile* spore

germination, especially glycine was recently shown to be a limiting factor for establishing

infection (55). Indeed, it is possible that spores from other bacterial species could potentiate *C.*

difficile spore germination, since CaDPA is released by all germinating spores. Unfortunately,

testing whether CaDPA release by neighboring spores contributes to germination *in vivo* could

be challenging given that CaDPA-less spores have decreased resistance properties and may

not survive passage through the stomach.

Our analyses of several strains with CaDPA defects also provide new insight into how

CaDPA is incorporated into *C. difficile* spores. Our data confirm that SpoVV regulates CaDPA

transport in *C. difficile* likely by allowing CaDPA to cross the mother cell-derived outer forespore

membrane as previously shown in *B. subtilis* (37). However, in contrast with *B. subtilis*, some

CaDPA can still be transported into *C. difficile* spores in the absence of SpoVV, implying that

there is an additional transporter that can partially substitute the loss of its function. In addition,

our data suggest that CD3298, a putative ATP-binding protein, regulates SpoVAC function,

since the resistance and germination phenotypes of Δ*cd3298* spores most closely resemble

those of Δ*spoVAC* spores. Alternatively, CD3298 may work in concert with SpoVV and the

unidentified alternative CaDPA transporter located in the mother cell-derived outer forespore

membrane.

Taken together, our findings resolve an important question in our understanding of how

C. difficile integrates signals from amino acid and Ca^{2+} co-germinants alongside bile acid

germinants by demonstrating that either co-germinant class is sufficient to function as a co-

germinant. They also provide a new quantitative method for monitoring germination kinetics

over time, since our automated PySpore method allows the germination of hundreds to

thousands of spores to be analyzed over time. Since this method is not specific to *C. difficile*, it

can be applied to study mechanisms of germination initiation and germination heterogeneity in

other spore-formers with greater accuracy than existing programs (**Fig S4**). The ease with which

this program can be implemented by other investigators and its improved accuracy in identifying

spores within a population will hopefully allow the method to be adopted more widely.

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603   **Materials and Methods**
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Bacterial strains and growth conditions

The parental strain for all *C. difficile* strains in the study was 630Δ*erm*Δ*pyrE*. Allele coupled

exchange (ACE), which allows for in-frame gene deletions and complementation in an ectopic

locus, was used to generate all strains (56). *C. difficile* strains are listed in **Table S1** were grown

on brain heart infusion (BHI) media supplemented with L-cysteine (0.1% w/v; 8.25 mM),

taurocholate (TA, 0.1% w/v, 1.9 mM), thiamphenicol (5-15 µg/mL), kanamycin (50 µgmL) or

cefoxitin (8 µg/mL), as needed. For constructing in-frame deletions using allele coupled

exchange, *C. difficile* defined media (CDDM, (57)) was supplemented with 5-flouroorotic acid (5-

FOA, 2 mg/mL) and uracil (5 µg/mL). Cultures were grown at 37˚C under anaerobic conditions

using a gas mixture containing 85% N_2, 5% CO_2 and 5-10% H_2.

Escherichia coli DH5α strain was used for all plasmid construction and *E. coli* strain

HB101/pRK24 was used for conjugating plasmids for ACE into *C. difficile*. All HB101 strains

used in this study are listed in **Table S1**. E*. coli* strains were grown in Luria-Bertani broth (LB) at

37˚C with shaking at 225 rpm. The media was supplemented with chloramphenicol (20 µg/mL)

or ampicillin (50 µg/mL) as indicated.

E. coli **strain construction**

Plasmid constructs were cloned into DH5α strains and sequenced confirmed using Genewiz

Sanger sequencing. Benchling plasmid maps for all constructs and primers used in strain

construction are included in **Table S2**. PCR products were cloned into pMTL-YN3 digested with

AscI and Sbf1 or pMTL-YN1C digested with NotI and XhoI using Gibson assembly. Sequenced

confirmed plasmids were then cloned into HB101 strains to conjugate into *C. difficile* strains.

C. difficile **strain construction**

C. difficile in-frame deletions strains were generated with ACE by conjugating pMTL-YN3

plasmid constructs in HB101 into the 630Δ*erm*Δ*pryE* parental strain. Deletions were confirmed

by diagnostic PCR and two individual clones were phenotypically characterized before restoring

the *pyrE* locus. The *pyrE* locus was restored with ACE by conjugating the pMTL-YN1C plasmid

into the deletion strain or through complementation with appropriate pMTL-YN1C plasmid

containing the gene of interest. Two individual complementation clones were phenotypically

characterized. All strains used for conjugations are included in Table S1.

Spore purification

Strains were grown on 70:30 agar media for 2-3 days to induce sporulation as previously

described (58). Cultures were harvested into ice-cold, sterile water. Spore samples were

washed 5-6 times in ice-cold, sterile water and incubated overnight in sterile water at 4˚C. After

incubation, spore solutions were washed in ice-cold, sterile water and then treated with DNase I

(New England Biolabs) for 60 mins at 37˚C. Spores were then purified on a 20%/45% Histodenz

(Sigma Aldrich) gradient. The 45% Histodenz was required to isolate the less dense, CaDPA-

less spores (35). The resulting spores were washed 2 times in ice-cold, sterile water and

assessed for purity using phase-contrast microscopy. Spore stocks were stored at 4˚C in sterile

water. OD_{600} of the spore stock was measured as a proxy for spore concentration. The average

spore purification yield per agarose plate was determined from three independent spore

purifications.

Total DPA quantification using terbium fluorescence

The total DPA content of spores were measured using terbium fluorescence essentially as

described in (35). The equivalent 0.35 OD_{600} units of spores, or ~1 x 10^7 spores, were

suspended in 500 µL spore lysis buffer (0.3 mM $(NH_4)_2SO_4$, 6.6 mM KH_2PO_4, 15 mM NaCl, 59.5

mM $NaHCO_3$, 35.2 mM Na_2HPO_4). Spores in lysis buffer were split into two tubes, with one set

being incubated at 37˚C for 1 hour (untreated control) and the other set at 95˚C for 1 hour.

Samples were spun at 15,000 rpm for 2 minutes. 10 µL of supernatant was added to 115 µL of

10 mM Tris, 150 mM NaCl buffer with 800 µM terbium chloride in a black 96-well plate. Boiled

WT spore supernatant was added to 10 mM Tris, 150 mM NaCl buffer without terbium chloride

to determine background fluorescence. The fluorescence of terbium chloride (45) was

measured in a Synergy H1 microplate reader (Biotek; excitation: 270 nm, emission: 545 nm,

gain: 100) after a 15 min incubation at room temperature. The relative fluorescence units (RFU)

reported represent the fluorescence after the background fluorescence (WT spores, no terbium

chloride) has been subtracted. Data shown are the average fluorescence measured from three

independent spore purifications.

Spore viability following heat treatment

Spore viability after heat treatment was determined essentially as described in (35)**.** Briefly, 1.75

OD_{600} equivalents of spores, or ~5 x 10^7 spores, were suspended in 500 µL sterile water.

Spores were aliquoted into 7 tubes and incubated at 37˚C (no heat), 50˚C, 60˚C, 65˚C, 70˚C,

75˚C, or 80˚C for 15 minutes. After incubation, spores were serially diluted into 1x PBS and the

dilutions were plated onto BHIS with taurocholate agar media. After overnight incubation,

colonies were enumerated to determine the number of germinated spores. Data shown are the

averages from three independent spore purifications.

Optical density (OD_{600})-based germination assay

The germination kinetics of spores were analyzed by measuring OD_{600} of spores over time in a

microplate reader similarly to what was done in (28, 30). For all OD_{600} based kinetic assays,

about 0.17 OD_{600} equivalents of spores, or ~5 x 10^6 spores, per condition tested were

suspended in BHIS media or germination buffer (50 mM HEPES, 100 mM NaCl, pH 7.5).

Spores were aliquoted into wells of a clear, flat bottomed 96-well plate (Falcon) with either

calcium or glycine at indicated final concentrations to a final volume of 180 µL. As indicated, 20

µL of taurocholate (final concentration 0.2% (3.8 mM), 0.5% (9.5 mM), or 1% (19 mM) w/v) was

added. For the EGTA experiments, the germination buffer included 50 mM glycine, and 2 µL of

$CaCl_2$ and/or EGTA stock (100X solution relative to the final concentration) was included in the

20 µL taurocholate solution. The OD_{600} was measured at 37˚C every 3 minutes for 1 hour with

continuous linear shaking in a Synergy H1 microplate reader (Biotek). All germinant stocks

solutions were solubilized in water and filter sterilized; an initial 0.5 M EGTA stock was made in

0.1 N HCl. To measure germination kinetics in response to varying concentrations of

taurocholate, glycine, or calcium, germinant solutions were serially diluted in sterile water before

being mixed with spores in a 96-well plate. The change in OD_{600} was calculated as the ratio of

the OD_{600} at each time point to the OD_{600} at time zero. To calculate the average change in

OD_{600}/minute at various concentrations of taurocholate, glycine, or calcium, the period of

greatest change during the germination assay was first determined. For various concentrations

of taurocholate and calcium, the greatest change was between 0 and 6 minutes and for various

concentrations of glycine, the greatest change was between 0 and 15 minutes. To calculate the

average change in OD_{600}/min, the OD_{600} from the start of this time period was subtracted from

the OD_{600} at the end of the time period and divided by the time (in minutes) of the period of

greatest change. Data shown for all OD_{600} based kinetic assays are averages from experiments

performed on three independent spore purifications.

SleC cleavage analysis

Spores were diluted to about 0.35 OD_{600} equivalents per time point tested (0.7 OD units total)

into germination buffer (50 mM HEPES, 100 mM NaCl, pH 7.5) with 50 mM glycine. One third of

the spore volume was removed as a starting time point control. Taurocholate (TA) was added to

the remaining two thirds spore volume to a final concentration of 0.2% (3.8 mM) w/v. Spores

were incubated at 37˚C and 100 µL samples were taken at 30- and 60-minutes post TA

addition. Samples were centrifuged to pellet spores and supernatant was removed. Spores

were resuspended into 50 µL EBB buffer (8 M urea, 2 M thiourea, 4% (w/v) SDS, 2% (v/v) β-

mercaptoethanol) for further analysis by western blotting.

Western blot analysis

Spore samples in EBB from SleC cleavage assays were boiled for 20 minutes with vortex

mixing and 4X NuPAGE LDS Sample Buffer (Thermo Fisher) was added to stain samples with

bromophenol blue. Samples were boiled for an additional 5-10 minutes with vortex mixing after

the addition of sample buffer. Samples were resolved by electrophoresis on a 12% SDS-PAGE

gel and transferred to a Millipore-Immobilon PVDF membrane for western blot analysis.

Membranes were blocked with a 1:1 dilution of Odyssey Blocking Buffer and 1X phosphate

buffered saline (PBS) with 0.1% (v/v) Tween 20 and probed with rabbit polyclonal anti-CotA

antibodies (50) and monoclonal mouse anti-SleC antibodies (27). The anti-CotA antibody was

used at a 1:1000 dilution and the anti-SleC antibody was used at a 1:5000 dilution. IRDye

680CV and 800CW infrared dye-conjugated secondary antibodies were used at 1:20,000

dilutions. Secondary antibody fluorescence emissions were detected on an Odyssey LiCor Clx.

Results shown are representative Western blot analyses from three independent spore

isolations.

Phase-contrast microscopy analyses of spore hydration

Spores were diluted to about 0.35 OD_{600} into germination buffer (50 mM HEPES, 100 mM NaCl,

pH 7.5). Spores were further diluted 1:5 in sterile water and 1.5 µL was added to an agarose

pad on a microscope slide and covered with a cover slip for analysis by phase-contrast

microscopy. Agarose pads were made by adhering a Gene Frame (ThermoFisher Scientific) to

a glass slide and filling the Gene Frame with 1%, 19 mM (w/v) agarose in germination buffer.

Agarose pads were incubated at 4˚C to solidify. Spores were analyzed on an Axioskop (Carl

Zeiss, West-Germany) upright microscope, a 100x 1.3 NA Plan NeoFluar phase contrast

objective, and images were taken using a Hamamatsu C4742-95 Orca 100 CCD Camera with a

25 ms exposure. Images were taken of fields with well-separated spores to ensure better

identification of spores in downstream analysis. Phase-contrast images were analyzed using the

MicrobeJ plug-in (44) for ImageJ to identify individual spores and measure the intensity of

phase-bright spore core. MicrobeJ analysis was completed with the following parameters: width

[p]: 0.6-1, circularity [0-1]: 0.5-1, curvature [0-max]: 0-0.4, sinuosity [0-max]:0-1.1, angularity

[rad]: 0-0.5, solidity [0-max]: 0-max, intensity [0-max]: 0-200, Z-score: 0-max, feature [0-max]: 0-

max, poles [0-max]: 0-max, range [p]: 0-max, symmetry: 0-max, holes [0-max]: 0-0. The percent

of spores correctly identified in an image varied between images and *C. difficile* strains, but at

least 275 spores were analyzed per strain in a replicate experiment. The average intensity (AU)

of individual spores was graphed as a proxy for spore hydration. The data shown derive from

three independent spore isolations.

Single spore germination analyses

PySpore Validation Experiments

To generate agarose pads for the analyses, 2X BHIS containing 1%, 19 mM TA was mixed with

molten 3.5% (w/v) Top-Vision Low Melting Point Agarose in sterile H_2O to a final concentration

of 1.75% agarose and 0.5% (9.5 mM) TA. The resulting media was added to a 125 µL gene-

frame (Thermo-Fisher Scientific) adhered to a clean glass microscope slide and solidified. WT,

$\Delta pdaA$, and $\Delta cwlD$ spores were diluted to 0.2-0.5 OD_{600} in sterile H_2O in biological triplicate and

1µl was spotted on to a #1.5 coverslip and allowed to dry at 37˚C. After the spores dried, the

coverslip was inverted onto the agar pad and imaged immediately imaged via time-lapse phase-

contrast microscopy at 37˚C.

<u>Glycine and Calcium Experiments</u>

Agarose pads were made containing germination buffer (50 mM HEPES, 100 mM NaCl, pH

7.5), 1.75% (w/v) Top-Vision Low Melting Point Agarose, 0.2% (3.8 mM) TA (w/v), and either 10

mM Gly or 30 mM $CaCl_2$. The resulting media was added to a 125µl gene-frame (Thermo-Fisher

Scientific) adhered to a clean glass microscope slide and solidified. WT, $\Delta dpaAB$ spores were

diluted to 0.2-0.5 OD_{600} in sterile H_2O in biological triplicate and 1µl was spotted on to a #1.5

coverslip and allowed to dry at 37˚C. After the spores dried, the coverslip was inverted onto the

agar pad and imaged immediately imaged via time-lapse phase-contrast microscopy at 37˚C.

<u>Spore Exudate Experiments</u>

To generate the germination exudates used to make the agarose pads for analyzing spore

germination using time-lapse microscopy, the equivalent of 0.7 OD_{600} units were diluted into

germination buffer (50 mM HEPES, 100 mM NaCl, pH 7.5). The TA germinant and glycine co-

germinant were added to final concentrations of 0.5%, 9.5 mM TA and 2.5 mM glycine and

incubated at 37˚C for 4 hours. The germination exudate was harvested from the spores by

centrifuging the samples at 15,000 rpm for 2 minutes to pellet the spores and removing the

supernatant (i.e. the germination exudate). The supernatant/ exudate was centrifuged again at

15,000 rpm for 2 minutes. If the germination exudate was not immediately used, it was stored at

4˚C. Otherwise, the supernatant was incubated for ~10 minutes at 37˚C and then 200 µL of the

exudate was added to 100 µL of melted 3.3% agarose in germination buffer (50 mM HEPES,

100 mM NaCl, pH 7.5) for final concentration of 1% agarose. For the Ca^{2+} "add-back"

experiment, $CaCl_2$ added to a final concentration of 190 µM during the pre-warming step at

37˚C. The agarose-germination exudate solution was gently vortexed and then added to a Gene

Frame adhered to a microscope slide. The agarose pad was incubated at 4˚C to solidify the

agarose pad during which time 0.175 OD_{600} equivalents of WT spores were diluted 1:4 in sterile

water and vigorously pipetted to break up spore clumps. 1.5 µL of this WT spore mixture were

added to agarose pad; the pad was then sealed with a cover slip and immediately analyzed by

phase-contrast time-lapse microscopy.

<u>Data Analysis</u>

Resulting image stacks were registered if significant drift of the FOV was encountered, segmented, and quantified using a custom GUI based Python application developed in-house called PySpore. PySpore utilizes phase cross correlation for image registration/alignment of the image stack. To segment spores a black-hat transform is applied to each image to enhance the dark features of the spore, namely the spore coat, while also eliminating background and correcting for discrepancies in illumination over the field. A threshold is chosen from the black-hat processed image and a segmentation mask is generated. Each ROI then undergoes a simple pixel overlap based image processing algorithm to track its position throughout the movie and correct any discrepancies in spore ID, and measurements are extracted including size, shape, and intensity from the phase-contrast images and are output as a .csv file for downstream analysis.

All downstream analyses including statistical tests were done in Python. Spore clumps were excluded based on area; spores tracked for less than 50 frames were also excluded from further analysis. Additionally, highly noisy traces were excluded after evaluating the coefficient of variation (CV) at multiple windows for each time series and discarded based on a threshold CV value and the number of times that was exceeded in the time series.

Germination rate and time to germination were quantified from spores where germination was tracked (>20% decrease in intensity from start to end). Maximal germination rate was determined by evaluating the first derivative of 1-D smoothing spline fit to the data at each time point. Time to germination was defined as the time point when the max germination rate is reached.

PySpore code is available here: https://github.com/jribis89/PySpore

<u>Microscope Hardware</u>

Images were taken every 30 seconds using a Leica DMi8 inverted microscope equipped with a 63x 1.4NA Plan Apochromat phase-contrast objective, Leica Adaptive Focus Control (AFC), a high precision motorized stage (Pecon), an incubator (Pecon), and a Leica DFC9000-GTC sCMOS camera for all time-lapse analyses.

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mSphere 2.

    Figure Legends

    Figure 1. Mutants with defects in storing CaDPA in their core are more hydrated and less

    heat-resistant. (A) Schematic of CaDPA synthesis and transport during spore formation in *C.*

    difficile. DpaAB is the enzymatic complex that synthesizes DPA, which complexes with Ca^{2+}

    ions before it is transported across the outer (OM) and inner forespore membranes (IM). SpoVV

    is the putative CaDPA transporter in the OM (37), while SpoVAC is the CaDPA transporter

    located in the IM (43). CD3298 (orange circle) is a putative ATP-binding protein previously

    shown to be important for CaDPA transport in *C. difficile* (24), but it is unclear whether it

    associates with SpoVV or SpoVAC. (B) CaDPA levels measured in spores purified from WT,

    Δ*spoVV*, Δ*dpaAB*, Δ*cd3298*, Δ*spoVAC*, and their respective complementation strains. CaDPA

    levels were measured using terbium fluorescence after spores were boiled to release CaDPA or

    left untreated (RFU = relative fluorescent units). The average CaDPA measured on three

    independent spore preparations and associated standard deviation are shown. (C) SuperPlot

    comparison of CaDPA mutant spore intensity as measured by phase-contrast microscopy. The

    intensity of spores purified from the indicated strains was determined by phase-contrast

    microscopy using the MicrobeJ Fiji plug-in (44). A minimum of 650 spores was analyzed for

    each strain; the mean intensity for a given biological replicate is shown as large dots; the

    horizontal line represents the average of the mean intensity value for the three biological

    replicates. Statistical significance was determined using one-way ANOVA and Tukey's test. (D)

    Optical density (OD_{600})-based analyses of spore germination over time in the indicated strains.

    Germination was induced in the presence of rich media (BHIS) and 1% (19 mM) taurocholate.

    The ratio of the OD_{600} of each strain at a given time point relative to the OD_{600} at time zero was

    plotted. The average of three independent experiments using three independent spore

    purifications is shown, and shaded error bars indicate the standard deviation for each time point

    measured. Statistical significance relative to WT was determined using a two-way ANOVA and

    Tukey's test. **** $p < 0.0001$, *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$, n.s. = no statistical

    significance.

    Figure 2. CaDPA mutant spores germinate in response to either Ca^{2+} or glycine co-

    germinants. Optical density (OD_{600})-based analyses of spore germination over time in the

    presence of the indicated concentrations of taurocholate and either glycine (A, C, D) or Ca^{2+} (B)

    co-germinants. The ratio of the OD_{600} of each strain at a given time point relative to at time zero

was plotted. The average of three independent experiments (conducted on three independent

spore purifications) is shown, and shaded error bars indicate the standard deviation for each

time point measured. Statistical significance relative to WT was determined using a two-way

ANOVA and Tukey's test. **** $p < 0.0001$, *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$. (E) Western blot analyses

of SleC activation following 0.2% (3.8 mM) TA and 50 mM glycine exposure in the indicated

strains. The pro-SleC zymogen is proteolytically activated by the CspB protease in response to

TA germinant and co-germinant signals (27, 28). CotA was used as a loading control (50).

1015

Figure 3. Sensitivity of CaDPA mutant spores to Ca^{2+} co-germinant. (A) Optical density

(OD$_{600}$)-based analyses of spore germination over time in the presence of the indicated

concentrations of taurocholate and Ca^{2+}. The ratio of the OD$_{600}$ of each strain at a given time

point relative to at time zero was plotted. (B) Germination rate as a function of Ca^{2+} co-

germinant concentration. Germination rate was defined as the average change in OD$_{600}$ in the

first 6 min of the assay. (C) Optical density (OD$_{600}$)-based analyses of spore germination over

time in the presence of the indicated concentrations of taurocholate and glycine. The average of

three independent experiments (conducted on three independent spore purifications) is shown,

and shaded error bars indicate the standard deviation for each time point measured. (D)

Germination rate as a function of glycine co-germinant concentration. Germination rate was

defined as the average change in OD$_{600}$ in the first 15 min of the assay. For all the data in this

figure, the average of three independent experiments conducted on three independent spore

purifications is shown, and the shaded error bars indicate the standard deviation for each time

point measured.

1030

Figure 4. PySpore Automated image analysis pipeline for quantifying single-spore

germination kinetics using time-lapse microscopy analyses. (A) Schematic of PySpore

analyses of spore germination. Images from time-lapse microscopy are processed using a

black-hat transform to identify spores based by enhancing their phase-dark outline. After spores

are segmented, a simple single-particle tracking scheme allows them to be tracked throughout

the course of the movie, and their intensities can be plotted over time. (B) Percent of germinated

WT, Δ*cwlD*, Δ*pdaA*, and Δ*cspC* spores detected by the PySpore program for the indicated

strains when spotted onto BHIS agarose pads containing 0.5%, 9.5 mM taurocholate. Spores

whose intensity was below a specific threshold that did not change over time are included in the

percent germinated value. Quantification of (C) time to germination and (D) maximum

germination rate from PySpore analyses of the single-spore germination traces. (E) Single-

spore germination traces of the change in relative intensity of WT, $\Delta cwlD$, $\Delta pdaA$ spores. The

ratio of the intensity at a given time point relative to the starting intensity is plotted. Statistical

significance was determined via the Kruskal-Wallis test *p < 0.05. Blue points represent the

median of each biological replicate, error bars show the mean (diamond) and standard error. (F)

Filmstrip of time-lapse microscopy analyses of the indicated spores spotted on BHIS + 0.5%,

9.5 mM TA agarose pads. Parts of this figure were created with BioRender.

1048

Figure 5 Single-spore analysis of the individual roles of Ca^{2+} and Gly during germination.

(A) Kinetic analysis of percent germination of WT and $\Delta dpaAB$ spores in HEPES-NaCl buffer

containing 0.2% (3.8 mM) TA and 10 mM glycine or 30 mM CaCl$_2$. (B) Comparison of maximal

germination rate for WT and $\Delta dpaAB$ with either glycine or calcium alone. (C) Single

germination traces showing the change in intensity over time under each condition. (D)

Filmstrips of WT and $\Delta dpaAB$ in each buffer condition (scale bar = 5 µm). Statistical significance

was determined via the Kruskal-Wallis test * p < 0.05**.** Blue points represent the median of each

biological replicate, error bars show the mean of all biological replicates (grey diamond) and

standard error.

1058

Figure 6. Ca^{2+} released during WT spore germination can serve as a "public good" to

potentiate the germination of neighboring spores. (A) Schematic of germination exudate

preparation. Phase-contrast microscopy images highlight the delayed germination kinetics of

$\Delta dpaAB$ spores in the presence of low glycine and TA. After germinating WT and $\Delta dpaAB$

spores in 2.5 mM glycine and 0.5% (9.5 mM) TA, germination "exudates" were harvested by

pelleting spores and removing the supernatant fraction. This fraction was incorporated into

agarose pads, and the ability of CaDPA released into the WT germination exudate fraction to

potentiate germination in "naïve" WT spores is assessed. (B) Percent of germinated spores

detected by the PySpore program for the indicated strains when spotted onto BHIS agarose

pads containing 0.5% (9.5 mM) taurocholate. Spores whose intensity was below a specific

threshold that did not change over time are included in the percent germinated value. (C) Single

spore traces showing the change in intensity over time for WT spores in the presence of each

harvested exudate. (D) Filmstrips of germination for WT spores germinating in the presence of

harvested exudates.

1073

Figure 7. Micromolar concentrations of Ca^{2+} appear to be required for *C. difficile*

germination to proceed. Optical density (OD$_{600}$)-based analyses of WT and $\Delta dpaAB$ spore

germination over time in the presence of 0.2% (3.8 mM) taurocholate and 50 mM glycine and

the indicated concentrations of EGTA (A) and 5 µM EGTA and/or 5 µM Ca^{2+} (B). The ratio of the

OD_{600} of each strain at a given time point relative to at time zero was plotted. The average of

three independent experiments (conducted on three independent spore purifications) is shown,

and shaded error bars indicate the standard deviation for each time point measured. Statistical

significance relative to the untreated sample was determined using a two-way ANOVA and

Tukey's test.

1083

1084 **Supplementary Figure Legends**

1085

1086 **Figure S1. CaDPA mutant spores are less "phase-bright".**

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1088 **Figure S2**. **Spore purification efficiency and heat resistance of CaDPA mutant spores.**

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1090 **Figure S3. Spline determination of germination rate and germination time.**

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1092 **Figure S4. Comparison of PySpore and SporeTrackerX.**

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1094 **Figure S5. Comparison of CaDPA mutant spore germination in the presence of glycine vs.**
1095 **Ca^{2+} co-germinant**.
1096

1097 **Figure S6. Micromolar concentrations of Ca^{2+} appear to be required for *C. difficile***
1098 **germination to proceed**