

1 Comparative Genomics and Directed Evolution Reveal Genetic Determinants of Extreme UVC

2 Radiation Tolerance in Bacteria Recovered from the Stratosphere

3 Adam J. Ellington^a, Tyler J. Schult^a, Christopher R. Reisch^{a*}, and Brent C. Christner^{a#},

4 ^aDepartment of Microbiology and Cell Science, Institute of Food and Agricultural Science,

5 University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida, USA

6 #Address correspondence to Brent C. Christner, xner@ufl.edu.

7 *Present address: Christopher R. Reisch, Genomatica, San Diego, California, USA

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10 **Abstract**

11 Aerosolized microbes surviving transport to and in the stratosphere endure extremes of
12 low temperature, atmospheric pressure, and relative humidity, and high shortwave ultraviolet
13 radiation flux. However, the genetic determinants for traits enabling resistance to the
14 combination of stresses experienced by microbes in the high atmosphere have not been
15 systematically investigated. In this study, we examined Proteobacteria and Actinobacteria
16 isolated from the stratosphere (18 to 29 km ASL) and that demonstrated high tolerance to
17 desiccation (15-25% RH) and UVC radiation (UVCR; $\lambda = 254$ nm). Closely related reference
18 strains were more sensitive to UVCR than the stratospheric isolates, indicating that extreme
19 resistance is not universally distributed in these phylogenetically related bacteria. Comparative
20 genomic analyses revealed DNA repair and antioxidant defense genes in the isolates that are not
21 possessed by the related reference strains, including genes encoding photolyase, DNA nucleases
22 and helicases, and catalases. Directed evolution by repeated exposure to increasing doses of
23 UVCR improved the LD₉₀ in a sensitive reference strain by ~3.5-fold. The mutations acquired in
24 *Curtobacterium flaccumfaciens* pv. *flaccumfaciens* strain DSM 20129 incrementally increased its
25 UVCR resistance, with the accumulation of 20 point mutations in protein coding genes
26 increasing tolerance to a level approaching that of stratospheric isolate *Curtobacterium* sp. L6-1.
27 The genetic basis for the increased UVCR tolerance phenotypes observed is discussed, with a
28 specific emphasis on the role of genes involved in DNA repair and detoxification of reactive
29 oxygen species.

30 **Importance**

31 Ultraviolet radiation is omnipresent in sunlight and has important biological effects on
32 organisms. The stratosphere is the only location on Earth where microbes receive natural

33 exposure to highly mutagenic wavelengths (<280 nm) of ultraviolet radiation. Genetic studies of
34 bacteria from an environment that selects for extreme ultraviolet radiation resistant phenotypes
35 has expanded what is known from studies of model species (e.g., *E. coli*) and identified
36 potentially novel protection and repair strategies. In addition to deepening understanding of
37 ultraviolet radiation photobiology in atmospheric microbes and bacteria in general, these
38 advancements are also highly relevant to astrobiology and space biology. The cold, dry,
39 hypobaric, and high radiation environment of the stratosphere provides an earthly analog for thin
40 extraterrestrial atmospheres (e.g., Mars) and is ideal for bioprospecting extremophile phenotypes
41 that enable engineering of genetic stability and functionality in bio-based space life-support
42 systems or any application where long-term persistence is desirable (e.g., biocontrol).

43 **Introduction**

44 The persistence of microbes during atmospheric transport and deposition has important
45 implications to human health (1, 2), agriculture (3–5), meteorology (6–8), and astrobiology (9,
46 10). Many studies have focused on microbial aerosols in the lowest layer of the troposphere,
47 where the air is in contact with and affected by the surface (i.e., convective boundary layer,
48 CBL). However, the composition of microbial assemblages in the CBL can be quite different
49 from that of overlying air masses in the ‘free troposphere’ (11, 12). Importantly, environmental
50 conditions in the CBL are unrepresentative of those at higher altitudes, where biological stresses
51 (e.g., water loss and ultraviolet radiation, UVR) become increasingly intense. Given that 10^{23} to
52 10^{24} microbes are estimated to disperse annually in the Earth-atmosphere system (13), new
53 information is needed to determine the genetic basis and mechanisms enabling survival under the
54 extreme conditions associated with atmospheric transport.

55 The stratosphere is the atmospheric layer above the troposphere (~15 to 50 km above sea
56 level, ASL) and is characterized by low temperature, atmospheric pressure, and relative humidity
57 (RH) and high UVR flux (9, 12–16). This combination of conditions is unique to any other
58 location on Earth and similar to conditions on the surface of Mars (14, 15), making the
59 stratosphere a relevant astrobiological analog to examine microbial survival potential on alien
60 worlds (16–19). Microbes that survive conditions in the stratosphere are limited to those tolerant
61 of water loss and exposure to high levels of UVR (20). The UVR spectrum consists of three
62 types: UVAR (320-400 nm), UVBR (280-320 nm), and UVCR (100-280 nm). Oxygen and
63 ozone in the lower stratosphere strongly absorb short wavelength UVR, and consequently,
64 UVCR is not observed at lower altitudes in the troposphere (21). As such, the stratosphere is the

65 only natural laboratory on Earth to examine the biological effects of high energy UVR
66 wavelengths.

67 UVR damages cells via direct and indirect effects. Direct absorption of UVR by DNA forms
68 pyrimidine dimers that inhibit transcription and replication and can lead to single-stranded breaks
69 in the sugar-phosphate backbone (22). Indirect effects of UVR occur through the generation of
70 reactive oxygen species (ROS), which can induce single- and double- strand breaks, apurinic
71 sites, and base damage in DNA, as well as the oxidation and chemical modification of proteins
72 and lipids (23). Bacterial tolerance to UV is conferred by a complex network of genetic and
73 physiological systems termed the “UV-resistome”, which has five basic functions: sense, shield,
74 detoxify, repair, and tolerate (24). Photoreceptors and other stress sensors sense specific UV
75 wavelengths and DNA damage, triggering a regulatory cascade that elicits specific cellular
76 responses (25, 26). Specialized membrane proteins and UV-absorbing pigments shield
77 intracellular components from irradiation (27). ROS-scavengers detoxify reactive species to
78 prevent oxidative damage and maintain cellular redox homeostasis (28). Efficient DNA repair
79 proteins repair genetic damages (29). And finally, error-prone polymerases tolerate and bypass
80 unrepaired lesions to ensure survival of the cell at the cost of introducing mutations to the
81 genome (30). The general response of bacteria to UVR and the DNA repair strategies utilized
82 have been well-studied in organisms such as *E. coli* (22, 29, 31). However, model species are not
83 representative of natural bacterial populations, and in particular, those that disseminate widely in
84 the atmosphere.

85 Previously, we sampled aerosols to altitudes of 38 km ASL using a specialized payload
86 attached to a helium balloon (32), isolated a variety of bacteria from the samples, and
87 demonstrated their high tolerance to desiccation (15-25% RH) and UVCR ($\lambda= 254$ nm) (20).

88 Several of the isolates displayed levels of resistance rivaling that of the highly radio- and xero-
89 tolerant bacterium *Deinococcus radiodurans*. In this study, we sequenced the genomes of two
90 highly tolerant isolates (*Curtobacterium* sp. L6-1 and *Noviherbaspirillum* sp. L7-7A) and used
91 comparative genomic analyses with closely related, UV-sensitive reference strains to identify
92 genetic features likely contributing to UVCR tolerance. We also used directed evolution of the
93 UV-sensitive *Curtobacterium flaccumfaciens* pv. *flaccumfaciens* strain DSM 20129 (referred to
94 hereafter as DSM 20129) to improve its UVCR tolerance and identified the mutations
95 responsible for enhanced resistance. Additionally, we examined cellular ROS levels in the strains
96 after UVCR exposure and assessed photolyase activities via an *in vivo* photorepair assay. Our
97 results improve understanding of the mechanisms enabling bacterial survival during atmospheric
98 transport and genetic determinants of UVR tolerance in taxa for which extreme resistance has not
99 been previously reported or investigated.

100 **Results**

101 **UVCR-Resistance in Stratospheric Isolates and Related Strains**

102 Based on comparison of 16S rRNA gene sequences from strains L6-1 and L7-7A, these
103 isolates were identified as members of the Gram-positive actinobacterial genus *Curtobacterium*
104 and the Gram-negative betaproteobacterial genus *Noviherbaspirillum*, respectively (20). To
105 assess whether the high UVCR tolerance observed in the isolates is a feature shared with other
106 closely related taxa, actinobacterial and betaproteobacterial reference strains were identified (Fig.
107 1A), obtained from culture collections (Table A1), and screened for UVCR tolerance. The
108 inactivation rate (k) and LD_{90} were derived from a survival curve for each strain (Table A2).
109 *Curtobacterium* sp. L6-1 has higher UVCR tolerance (LD_{90} of 470 J m^{-2}) than DSM 20129 (LD_{90}
110 of 98 J m^{-2} ; Fig. 1B; Table S2). Similarly, *Noviherbaspirillum* sp. L7-7A also displayed higher

111 UVCR tolerance than the reference strains tested (Fig. 1C), with an average LD₉₀ of 290 J m⁻²
112 compared to 195 J m⁻² for *N. soli* SUEMI10, 63 J m⁻² for *N. autotrophicum* TSA66, and 35 J m⁻²
113 for *N. denitrificans* TSA40 (Table A2).

114 **Genetic Differences Between UVCR-Tolerant and -Sensitive Strains**

115 The disparities in UVCR tolerance between the stratospheric isolates and reference
116 strains suggested that L6-1 and L7-7A possess genetically discernable features contributing to
117 this phenotype. To enable comparative genomic analysis, whole genome sequences were
118 obtained for the *Curtobacterium* and *Noviherbaspirillum* strains and deposited in GenBank (33).

119 Strain L6-1 has a single 3.4 Mbp circular chromosome with a GC content of 72.0% and
120 3,158 genes encoding 12 rRNAs, 46 tRNAs, and 3,072 proteins (Table 1). Strain DSM 20129
121 possesses a circular chromosome and plasmid that together total 3.8 Mbp, with a GC content of
122 70.9%, and 3,616 genes encoding 9 rRNAs, 47 tRNAs, and 3,517 proteins. The two strains share
123 83% average nucleotide identity (ANI), which is below >95% values typically observed for
124 closely related populations in a species taxon (34–37). For the *Noviherbaspirillum* strains, L7-7A
125 possesses three circular chromosomes consisting of 5.2 Mbp and a GC content of 62.0%, with
126 4,771 genes encoding 15 rRNAs, 64 tRNAs, and 4,581 proteins. Although L7-7A has a genome
127 size and content more similar to that of strain TSA66, it shares 79% ANI with both TSA66 and
128 TSA40 and is likely a separate species (Table 1).

129 To analyze DNA repair and ROS detoxification pathways of the UV-resistome, genome
130 comparisons using the RAST annotation server and the BLAST alignment tool were performed
131 (Tables A3 and A4 for L6-1; Tables A5 and A6 for L7-7A; respectively). L6-1 encodes four
132 additional proteins associated with DNA repair that are not found in DSM 20129 (Fig. 2; Table
133 A3), including endonuclease VIII (*nei2*), two homologs of the UvrD/PcrA DNA helicases

134 (*uvrD2* & *pcrA*), and a cryptochrome/photolyase family protein (*phr1*). In addition to DNA
135 repair genes, L6-1 encodes a homolog of the KatA catalase (*katA*; Fig. 2; Table A4), the major
136 catalase expressed in vegetative *Bacillus* (38), whereas DSM 20129 encodes a KatX homolog
137 (Table A4), which has been demonstrated to protect germinating endospores from H₂O₂ stress
138 (39). A homolog of the peroxide operon regulator PerR (*perR*) from *B. subtilis* is also found in
139 L6-1, but not DSM 20129 (Fig. 2; Table A4). L6-1 also possesses an extra copy of the
140 glutaredoxin-like protein NrdH (*nrdH2*; Fig. 2; Table A4) involved in disulfide reduction.

141 Of the nine DNA repair genes identified in L7-7A that are absent in strains TSA40 and
142 TSA66 (Fig. 3; Table A5), there are additional copies of endonuclease III (*nth2* & *nth3*) and
143 excinuclease UvrABC subunit A (*uvrA2*), along with the RecBCD nuclease subunit D (*recD*),
144 DNA ligase C (*ligC*), alpha-ketoglutarate-dependent dioxygenase AlkB (*alkB*), error prone DNA
145 polymerase V subunit D (*umuD*), and exonuclease SbcCD (*sbcC* & *sbcD*). Notably, all the
146 *Noviherbaspirillum* strains lack the *recB* and *recC* genes, as well as genes for the alternative
147 repair protein RecF of the RecFOR recombination pathway (Table A5). In addition to LigC,
148 other essential components of the bacterial non-homologous end joining (NHEJ) repair pathway
149 (LigD and Ku) are present in strains L7-7A and TSA40 (Table A5). Antioxidant genes unique to
150 L7-7A (Fig. 3; Table A6) include additional copies of catalase (*katE*), a divalent metal cation
151 transporter (*mntH2*), and the paraquat-inducible protein A (*pqiA2*). All three *Noviherbaspirillum*
152 strains encode an ortholog of the *B. subtilis* KatX catalase (Table A6). However, L7-7A also
153 encodes an ortholog of the *E. coli* KatE catalase (Fig. 3; Table A6). Though strain TSA40
154 possesses two genes for MntH, *mntH2* has low similarity to the *mntH2* of L7-7A (Table A6) and
155 may have a different function.

156 **Directed Evolution of UVCR Tolerance in *C. flaccumfaciens* DSM 20129**

157 Experiments designed to improve UVCR tolerance of the reference strains through
158 repeated exposure to sublethal doses of UVCR (Fig. 4A) were partially successful. After 10
159 rounds of selection, we were unable to significantly improve the UVCR tolerance of the
160 *Noviherbaspirillum* strains (data not shown). However, decreased UVCR sensitivity occurred
161 incrementally in strain DSM 20129 during 12 rounds of selection, increasing its LD₉₀ by 3.5-fold
162 in comparison to the founder population and to a level comparable with isolate L6-1 (Fig. 4B).

163 Whole genome sequences were obtained for five evolved strains of DSM 20129 from the
164 directed evolution experiment and where an increase in UVCR tolerance was observed (Table 2),
165 and the mutations acquired were identified using the Breseq mutation analysis pipeline (40). In
166 total, 40 mutations were identified in the most tolerant strain (DSM-9.3.3), with five occurring in
167 intergenic regions, six in hypothetical genes, three in pseudogenes, and 26 in protein coding
168 genes (Fig. 4C). Of the 26 mutations in protein coding genes, six are silent and 20 are
169 nonsynonymous mutations (Table 2; Table A7) of proteins that participate in a wide range of
170 reactions (Fig. 4C). The most notable are involved in DNA repair (uracil DNA glycosylase and
171 DNA photolyase), cellular redox homeostasis (NAD(P)/FAD-dependent oxidoreductase in the
172 thioredoxin reductase family), and the stress response (cold shock protein).

173 **Intracellular ROS Concentrations After UVCR Exposure**

174 Given the indirect effects of UVR exposure, we determined the concentration of ROS in
175 the cells to assess if ROS detoxification may play a role in explaining the tolerances observed.
176 ROS concentration before and after exposure to UVCR was monitored in isolate L6-1, the DSM
177 20129 parent strain, and the most UVCR-tolerant evolved strain (DSM-9.3.3) using the free
178 radical sensing fluorescent probe H₂DCFDA. ROS concentration did not significantly increase in
179 L6-1, DSM 20129, or DSM-9.3.3 at any of the UVCR doses tested (up to 1,980 J m⁻²; Fig. 5A).

180 Identical observations were made in experiments with *D. radiodurans* R1 (Fig. 5A), which is
181 well known for its capacity to resist and detoxify oxidative stress-generating agents (41–43). In
182 stark contrast, ROS concentrations in *E. coli* approximately doubled after each $\sim 1,000 \text{ J m}^{-2}$ of
183 UVCR exposure (Fig. 5A).

184 ***In vivo* Assessment of Photolyase Activity**

185 The contribution of photolyase to UVCR tolerance was investigated using an *in vivo*
186 photorepair assay. Light activates photolyase for the repair of DNA photoproducts (44);
187 therefore, its relative activity can be determined by examining the survival rate of UVCR
188 exposed populations that recover under white light in comparison to those kept in the dark.
189 Consistent with previous studies (45–47), post-UVCR exposure to white light increased the
190 survival rate for all strains (Fig. 5B). Based on the interpolated LD₉₀ values, there was not a
191 significant difference in survival for DSM 20129 and DSM-9.3.3, indicating that the mutations
192 incurred in the photolyase gene did not significantly affect DNA repair activity under the
193 conditions tested (Fig. 5B inset). Photoreactivation of L6-1 increased the LD₉₀ $\sim 140\%$, which is
194 significantly higher (P-value = 0.004; one-way ANOVA) than the $\sim 19\%$ increase observed for
195 the DSM strains (Fig. 5B inset).

196 To determine if the second photolyase gene possessed by strain L6-1 contributes to its
197 superior photorepair capacity, we aligned the sequences to known CPD and (6-4) photolyases.
198 The CPD photolyases from *E. coli* (EcPhrB) and *Agrobacterium fabrum* (AfPhrA) align well
199 with one of the photolyases found in L6-1 (*phr2*: KM842_RS02105) and the photolyase from
200 DSM 20129 (*phr*: K0028_16065) (Fig. A1A). However, the additional photolyase in L6-1 (*phr1*:
201 KM842_RS01465) is more closely related ($\sim 37\%$ identity) to the bacterial (6-4) photolyases of
202 *A. fabrum* (AfPhrB), *Cereibacter sphaeroides* (CsCryB), and *Vibrio cholerae* (Vc(6–4) FeS-

203 BCP), and the active site residues determined for AfPhrB are largely conserved in all four
204 species (Fig. A1B). Furthermore, the protein structural prediction algorithm AlphaFold2 was
205 used to model 3D structures for the L6-1 and DSM 20129 photolyases with a high degree of
206 confidence (Fig. A2A-C). 3D structural alignments with the *E. coli* CPD photolyase (EcPhrB,
207 PDB ID: 1DNP) show high similarity with the L6-1 Phr2 and DSM 20129 Phr, with a template-
208 modeling score (TM-score) of 0.87 for both proteins (Fig. A3A). The L6-1 Phr1 shows high
209 similarity with the *A. fabrum* (6-4) photolyase (AfPhrB, PDB ID: 5KCM) with a TM-score of
210 0.89, further supporting its proposed function as a bacterial (6-4) photolyase (Fig. A3B).

211 To assess the contributions of *phr1* and *phr2* to survival under UVCR exposure, we
212 cloned them into expression vectors for heterologous expression in *E. coli* BL21 cells. Wild type
213 BL21 cells were rapidly inactivated upon UVCR exposure, with an LD₉₀ of 16 J m⁻² under
214 photoreactivating conditions (Fig. A4A). Overexpression of the native *E. coli* CPD photolyase
215 (EcPhrB) significantly increased the LD₉₀ by more than 230% during photoreactivation (Fig.
216 A4B). Photoreactivation by the putative CPD photolyases from the *Curtobacterium* strains
217 (L6Phr2 and DSMPPhr for L6-1 *phr2* and DSM 20129 *phr*, respectively) also improved the
218 survival of BL21, increasing the LD₉₀ by 330% and 270%, respectively (Fig. A4B). In contrast,
219 expression of the putative (6-4) photolyase from strain L6-1 (L6Phr1) alone did not significantly
220 improve UVCR survival of BL21 cells (Fig. A4B). However, when the two L6-1 photolyases
221 were co-expressed (L6Phr1 + L6Phr2), photoreactivation significantly improved survival over
222 L6Phr2 alone (Fig. A4B) and increased the LD₉₀ by an average of 400%.

223 Discussion

224 There is a strong gradient of increasing biological stressors with altitude in the
225 atmosphere (48, 49), and under the extreme environmental conditions in the stratosphere,

226 prolonged exposure to UVR and desiccation are most important to limiting survival (18, 19, 50–
227 61). The bacterial isolates studied (*Curtobacterium* sp. L6-1 and *Noviherbaspirillum* sp. L7-7A)
228 were isolated from aerosols sampled at altitudes of 18 to 29 km ASL in New Mexico, USA and
229 investigated because of their high tolerance to UVCR and desiccation (20). We tested close
230 phylogenetic relatives of these isolates and found that they do not have extraordinary tolerance to
231 UVCR (Fig. 1), providing an opportunity for a comparative analysis. UVR-induced cellular
232 damage occurs directly through dimerization of pyrimidine bases in DNA, and indirectly,
233 through the ROS generated by photosensitization mechanisms (31, 62). Accordingly, we
234 hypothesized that higher tolerance to UVCR by isolates from the stratosphere is due to
235 possessing DNA repair and antioxidant genes not found in their sensitive relatives.

236 *Comparative genomic evidence for UVR tolerance in Noviherbaspirillum* sp. L7-7A

237 To our knowledge, UVR tolerance in the genus *Noviherbaspirillum* has not been
238 previously reported or examined. Though we were unable to improve UVCR tolerance in the
239 *Noviherbaspirillum* reference strains through directed evolution, comparative genomic analyses
240 identified 12 genes in isolate L7-7A involved in DNA repair and antioxidant systems that were
241 not present in the *Noviherbaspirillum* reference strain genomes (Fig. 3; Tables A5-A6): *nth2*,
242 *nth3*, *uvrA2*, *recD*, *ligC*, *alkB*, *umuD*, *sbcC*, *sbcD*, *katE*, *mntH2*, and *pqiA2*. Previous studies
243 have implicated a role for these genes in UVCR tolerance (Supplemental Discussion), and as
244 such, any one (or combination) of these 12 genes could be responsible for isolate L7-7A's high
245 UVCR tolerance. However, genes with unknown functions (~21% of ORFs in the L7-7A
246 genome) cannot be ruled out as contributing to this phenotype.

247 *Genetic basis of UVR tolerance in the Curtobacterium* strains

248 Previous studies have documented high UVR tolerance in members of the
249 *Curtobacterium*, implying that it may be a common phenotype in this genus. Sundin and Jacobs
250 (63) examined UVCR tolerance in bacteria isolated from the phyllosphere of field-grown peanut
251 plants and found that *Curtobacterium* strains represented the largest proportion (~43%, n=213)
252 of those with UVCR minimum inhibitory doses (MID_c) greater than 150 J m⁻². Highly UVCR
253 resistant strains of *Curtobacterium* have also been isolated from desert rock varnish, with 17%
254 remaining viable after a UVCR dose of 220 J m⁻² (64). Our results are consistent with these
255 studies, with even the most UVCR “sensitive” *Curtobacterium* strain (DSM 20129) having an
256 LD₉₀ of ~100 J m⁻². Notably, *Curtobacterium* sp. L6-1 has a UVCR LD₉₀ of 470 J m⁻², which is
257 more than double of that reported for other members of this genus and near survival rates
258 reported for *D. radiodurans* (660 J m⁻²; (65)). In general, a species’ tolerance to UVR
259 approximates natural exposure (24), which makes high tolerance to UVCR a surprising
260 phenotype for populations to maintain in surface environments. However, this phenotype would
261 be highly relevant for enabling survival and persistence at high altitudes in the atmosphere (20).

262 Comparative genomic analyses with DSM 20129 showed that strain L6-1 possesses
263 seven additional genes related to DNA repair and antioxidant systems (Fig. 2; Tables A3-A4):
264 *nei2*, *uvrD2*, *pcrA*, *phr1*, *katA*, *perR*, and *nrdH2*. Endonuclease VIII (*nei2*) is a bifunctional DNA
265 N-glycosylase and abasic (AP) site lyase involved in the BER pathway. It initiates DNA repair
266 by recognizing and removing oxidative base lesions and cleaving the phosphodiester backbone
267 of the resulting AP site (66, 67). The UvrD DNA helicase II protein unwinds DNA in the 3'-5'
268 direction and plays a critical role in recombination, NER, and MMR (68–70). PcrA is a homolog
269 of the UvrD helicase found in Gram-positive bacteria and has also been shown to participate in
270 repairing UVR-induced DNA damage in *Bacillus* species (71).

271 Glutaredoxins (Grx) and glutathione (GSH), the main nonenzymatic antioxidants in
272 Gram-negative bacteria, are generally absent in Gram-positive species. Many actinobacterial
273 species are known to possess an alternative antioxidant system involving mycothiol (MSH), a
274 low molecular weight thiol (72). Both L6-1 and DSM 20129 possess homologs for the *mshA-D*
275 operon of the MSH biosynthesis pathway, and thus, MSH may serve as an important antioxidant
276 in these strains. An additional copy of the gene encoding glutaredoxin-like protein NrdH in strain
277 L6-1 is notable as NrdH has been shown to perform similar functions as the Grx/GSH system
278 and is reducible by thioredoxin reductase (73, 74), an enzyme ubiquitous in all domains of life.
279 In the GSH-lacking bacterium *Corynebacterium glutamicum*, NrdH enhances oxidative stress
280 resistance (75), suggesting the second *nrdH* gene in L6-1 could play a similar role.

281 *Cross-tolerance to environmental stress*

282 Desiccation- and radio-tolerance phenotypes frequently co-occur in extremophilic
283 bacteria and archaea (76–84). Given that the acute doses to which radiotolerant species are
284 resistant greatly exceed natural ionizing radiation sources on Earth, there is no evolutionary basis
285 for ionizing radiation resistance to arise through natural selection. Studies have demonstrated a
286 genetic linkage between desiccation- and ionizing radiation-resistance in *D. radiodurans* R1,
287 supporting the hypothesis that DNA repair mechanisms evolved to compensate for water loss are
288 also highly effective at repairing the similar pattern of DNA damage produced by exposure to
289 ionizing radiation (85). Similarly, there is no obvious fitness benefit to having high UVCR
290 resistance in any modern environment on Earth besides the stratosphere. However, since water
291 stress is a very common phenomenon in the biosphere, the genetic and biochemical mechanisms
292 that enhance survival to desiccation (e.g., ROS detoxification) may also provide tolerance to
293 UVCR. Further, when L6-1 and L7-7A are desiccated (25% RH) and exposed to UVCR, their

294 LD₉₀s are 1200 J m⁻² and 580 J m⁻², respectively (20). These rates of survival are 2- to 3-fold
295 higher than those observed when water has not been actively removed from the cells (Table A2)
296 and highlights another protective effect that desiccation resistance can provide against indirect
297 effects of UVR exposure.

298 In addition to possessing efficient pathways for repairing DNA damage, the ionizing and
299 UVCR ‘resistome’ also includes mechanisms to physiologically detoxify ROS generated during
300 exposure to these high-energy wavelengths. ROS produced when cells are exposed to UVR or
301 desiccated can oxidize lipids and proteins (86, 87), as well as react with many other cellular
302 constituents to inflict damage. ROS detoxification is known to have a role in bacterial
303 desiccation resistance (87) and radiosensitive strains of *D. radiodurans* are more susceptible to
304 oxidative damage than radiotolerant strains (88). Oxidative stress is a major contributor to the
305 damage caused by desiccation and radiation; therefore, efficient antioxidant systems are likely to
306 be important traits of xero- and radio-tolerant species. Our experiments indicate the presence of
307 efficient ROS detoxification mechanisms in L6-1 and DSM 20129, with neither showing any
308 significant increases in intracellular ROS concentrations after UVCR exposure (Fig. 5A). This
309 implies other members of the *Curtobacterium* could also possess this trait, a contention
310 supported by a study that exposed phyllosphere communities to the highly oxidative compound
311 ozone (5,000-10,000 ppb) and found that the relative abundance of *Curtobacterium* taxa
312 increased by ~4-fold, implying a high tolerance of ozone (89). Consequently, it is tempting to
313 speculate on the role that microbial antioxidant mechanisms may play during stratospheric
314 transport beyond enhancing microbial tolerance to UVR and desiccation, as the concentration of
315 ozone at altitudes of 15 to 30 km ASL (~1,000 to 8,000 ppb) is ~1000-fold higher than air near
316 the surface (90).

317 *Photoprotection strategies in Curtobacterium*

318 The comparative genomics analysis and directed evolution experiments implicated
319 photolyase family proteins in providing increased UVCR tolerance in the *Curtobacterium* strains
320 (Figs. 2 and 4C; Table 2). In bacteria, UVR-induced DNA dimers are repaired through direct
321 reversal by photolyases or the lesion is removed via the NER pathway. NER requires the
322 coordinated action of multiple proteins for incision, unwinding, and excision of a damage-
323 containing segment of DNA, followed by resynthesis and ligation of the excised nucleotides (22,
324 29, 91). However, because this is an energy-intensive process, a more measured response may be
325 necessary if a generous supply of energy is not available to the cell. For instance, direct reversal
326 of DNA photoproducts by photolyases requires a single protein and light. Given the opportunity
327 to function, the selective advantages of the photolyase repair system would make it a trait
328 favorable to any species in an energy limited, high UVR flux environment, including the high
329 atmosphere.

330 Photolyases catalyze the direct reversal of pyrimidine dimers in DNA when activated
331 with near-UV/blue light in a process called photoreactivation (44). Two major classes of DNA
332 photoproducts are produced by UVR: cyclobutane pyrimidine dimers (CPD) and pyrimidine (6-
333 4) pyrimidone photoproducts (6-4PP). Direct repair of these lesions is catalyzed by photolyases
334 specific to each lesion type (44, 92). Though CPD photolyases are widespread amongst bacteria,
335 only three bacterial (6-4) photolyases have been characterized to date: PhrB of *Agrobacterium*
336 *fabrum* (45, 93) (formerly *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* (94)), CryB of *Cereibacter sphaeroides*
337 (95, 96) (formerly *Rhodobacter sphaeroides* (97)), and Vc(6-4) FeS-BCP of *Vibrio cholerae*
338 (98). However, phylogenetic comparison with photolyase genes in the eukaryotic
339 cryptochrome/photolyase family suggests that (6-4) photolyases are more prevalent in

340 prokaryotes than initially thought (93). Sequence alignments and predicted structural models of
341 the L6-1 photolyases (Fig. A1) suggest it possesses a putative CPD photolyase (*phr2*:
342 KM842_RS16065) and (6-4) photolyase (*phr1*: KM842_RS01465). Strain L6-1 has higher
343 photorepair capacity than strain DSM 20129 (Fig. 5B), which only possesses a CPD photolyase.

344 To demonstrate functionality of the putative 6-4PP and CPD photolyases of L6-1, *phr1*
345 and *phr2*, respectively, were heterologously expressed in *E. coli* and their effects on its UVCR
346 tolerance were examined. Although expression of *phr1* did not increase UVCR tolerance over
347 that observed in the control, expression of *phr2* increased survival by ~325%, while co-
348 expression of *phr1* and *phr2* increased the survival rate even further (Fig. A4). These results are
349 likely due to the larger number of CPD lesions (75-90% of total) upon UV exposure as compared
350 to 6-4PP generated (22, 99–101). If further study shows the L6-1 *phr1* to be a bona fide (6-4)
351 photolyase, its activity alone might be expected to have a negligible effect on cell survival since
352 the overwhelming amount of DNA damage would be CPD dimers. However, when *phr1* and
353 *phr2* are co-expressed, the repair of both CPD and 6-4PP dimers has a synergistic effect on
354 survival.

355 *Conclusion*

356 We investigated the genetic basis for extreme UVCR resistance phenotypes in bacteria
357 recovered from stratospheric air masses (20), where high UVCR fluxes and low water
358 availability represent endmember values for these variables in the biosphere. Recognizing the
359 genetic underpinnings for the expressed characteristics mitigating damage from UVCR was
360 facilitated by the rich history of experimental work that has characterized the biochemistry and
361 molecular biology of DNA repair processes in model organisms. In fact, the genomes of the
362 proteobacterial and actinobacterial strains studied encode genes for most, if not all, of the typical

363 complement of DNA repair proteins documented in *E. coli* and many other bacteria. This
364 indicates that strains L7-7A and L6-1 operate their canonical DNA repair pathways in a manner
365 more effective than other species and/or that survival to UVCR is enhanced through alternative
366 mechanisms. For microbial species surviving long distance dispersal as aerosols in the
367 atmosphere, efficient DNA repair systems, such as photoreactivation, and mechanisms that
368 evolved to cope with water stress are likely to be valuable for enduring the high UVR fluxes that
369 intensify with altitude.

370 **Materials and Methods**

371 ***Bacterial Strains and Culture Conditions***

372 The bacterial strains used in this study are listed in Table A1. *Curtobacterium* sp. L6-1 and
373 *Noviherbaspirillum* sp. L7-7A were isolated from aerosols collected using a helium balloon
374 payload that sampled at altitudes of 18 to 23 km and 24 to 29 km ASL, respectively, near Ft.
375 Sumner, New Mexico in 2013 (32). Reference strains phylogenetically related to isolates L6-1
376 and L7-7A and that were identified as available in culture collections were obtained from the
377 German Collection of Microorganisms and Cell Cultures (DSMZ) and the United States
378 Department of Agriculture (USDA) Agricultural Research Service Culture Collection (NRRL).
379 These included *Curtobacterium flaccumfaciens* pv. *flaccumfaciens* (DSM 20129), *Mycetocola*
380 *reblochoni* (LMG 22367), *Plantibacter flavus* (DSM 14012T), and *Noviherbaspirillum soli*
381 (SUEMI10). *Noviherbaspirillum denitrificans* (TSA40) and *Noviherbasprillum autotrophicum*
382 (TSA66) were kindly provided by Dr. Satoshi Ishii of the University of Minnesota. Unless
383 otherwise noted, the actinobacterial and betaproteobacterial strains were cultured aerobically at
384 30°C with vigorous shaking in LB (10 g L⁻¹ tryptone, 5 g L⁻¹ yeast extract, 10 g L⁻¹ NaCl) and
385 R2A (Difco cat. no.: 218262) media, respectively. When required, media were amended with

386 antibiotics at the following concentrations: spectinomycin ($50 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$) & carbenicillin ($100 \mu\text{g}$
387 mL^{-1}).

388 *UVCR Survival Assays*

389 Cultures were grown in 5 mL of liquid media to stationary phase, and six serial dilutions of this
390 material were prepared in 10 mM MgSO_4 . Ten μL of each dilution was transferred to six sections
391 of a square plate containing agar-solidified growth media. Portions of the plate were then
392 covered with aluminum foil such that sections uncovered sequentially during 1 min interval
393 exposures were provided with controlled doses of UVCR (GE G36T5 UVC Light Bulb; $\lambda = 254$
394 nm; 3.3 W m^{-2}) that were 198, 396, 594, 792, and 990 J m^{-2} . The UVCR dose was measured
395 using a digital radiometer (Solar Light Company, Inc., Glenside, PA). The longest exposure for
396 the populations was 5 min. and the section of the plate that remained covered during the
397 experiment (i.e., was not exposed to UVCR) served as the control (N_0). The cultures were
398 incubated at 30°C for 24 to 48 h and the number of colony forming units (CFU) surviving each
399 UVCR dose (N) was used to calculate the surviving fraction, expressed as N/N_0 . Survival rates
400 are reported as the mean and SEM for three biological replicates.

401 *Whole Genome Sequencing and Comparative Genomics*

402 Whole genome sequences for *Noviherbaspirillum sp.* L7-7A, *Curtobacterium sp.* L6-1, and
403 *Curtobacterium flaccumfaciens* strain DSM 20129 were obtained as described previously (33).
404 Briefly, stationary phase cultures were pelleted, frozen (-70°C), and shipped to SNPsaurus
405 (Eugene, OR) for DNA extraction, library preparation, sequencing, and genome assembly using
406 the PacBio Sequel II sequencing platform followed by de novo genome assembly using the Flye
407 v2.7 assembler (102). The assembled genomes were submitted to GenBank (L7-7A: [JAHQRJ01](#);

408 L6-1: [CP076544.1](#); DSM 20129: [CP080395.1/CP080396.1](#)) and annotated using the NCBI
409 Prokaryotic Genome Annotation Pipeline (PGAP) (103).
410 Average nucleotide identity (ANI) and average amino acid identity (AAI) among the isolates and
411 reference strains were calculated using the ANI and AAI calculators from the Kostas lab
412 (<http://enve-omics.ce.gatech.edu/>) (104, 105). Functional comparisons were made with the Rapid
413 Annotation using Subsystem Technology (RAST) server and the SEED Viewer (106–108).
414 Further comparisons were made by searching for homologs of known DNA repair and ROS
415 detoxification proteins from model organisms in the L6-1, DSM 20129, L7-7A, TSA40, and
416 TSA66 genomes using the blastp algorithm from NCBI’s Basic Local Alignment Search Tool
417 (BLAST) (109). Query protein sequences were obtained from the UniProt database for
418 *Escherichia coli* strain K12, *Bacillus subtilis* strain 168, and *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* strain
419 ATCC 25618 / H37Rv (110). Reciprocal best hits were considered homologs if the bit score was
420 >50, E-value was <1e-5, and query coverage was >50% (111). Differences in gene content
421 among the isolates and the reference strain relatives were visualized using the BLAST Ring
422 Image Generator (BRIG) (112).

423 ***Directed Evolution and Mutation Analysis***

424 The survival of strain DSM 20129 to UVCR exposure was determined as described above.
425 Triplicate colonies surviving the highest UVCR dose were selected, grown separately in liquid
426 media, exposed to UVCR (as described in the section “UVCR Survival Assays” above), and the
427 process was repeated a total of 12 times (Fig. 4A). The populations from each cycle of exposure
428 were archived by freezing aliquots of the cultures in 25% glycerol and storing at -70°C.
429 Genome sequences were obtained for select strains throughout the directed evolution process
430 using the Illumina NextSeq 2000 sequencing platform (Microbial Genome Sequencing Center,

431 Pittsburgh, PA) with 2×150 bp reads. Sequencing reads were quality filtered and adaptors
432 trimmed using the Trim Galore script (113), followed by mapping to the reference genome and
433 mutation identification with the Breseq mutation analysis pipeline (40). The ancestral parent
434 strain was sequenced and used as a control to correct the reference genome before comparison
435 with the evolved strains. Gene Ontology (GO) functional annotations for proteins incurring
436 mutations throughout the directed evolution process were obtained using Blast2GO (114).

437 ***ROS Quantification Assays***

438 The free radical probe 2',7'-dichlorodihydrofluoresceindiacetate (H₂DCFDA) (Biotium,
439 Fremont, CA) was used to quantify ROS. Stationary phase cultures of *E. coli* MG1655, *D.*
440 *radiodurans* R1, isolate L6-1, the wild-type parent strain DSM 20129, and UV-evolved strain
441 DSM-9.3.3 were diluted to OD₆₀₀ 1.0 in 10 mL of media. Cells were washed with 10 mM
442 potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) and incubated for 30 min at 25°C in the same buffer
443 containing 10 μM H₂DCFDA. Subsequently, cells were washed and resuspended in 10 mL
444 potassium phosphate buffer (10 mM; pH 7.0), transferred to 60×15 mm petri plates, and exposed
445 to UVCR doses of 0, 990, or 1,980 J m⁻² while stirring the cell suspensions at 400 rpm with a
446 magnetic stir bar. The exposed cell populations were then washed, resuspended in fresh buffer,
447 and disrupted by vortexing with lysing matrix B (MP Biomedicals). Cellular debris was removed
448 by centrifugation for 10 min at 5,000×g, and fluorescence intensity in the supernatant was
449 measured using a multi-well plate reader (Molecular Devices SpectraMax M3; Exc. 490nm,
450 Emm. 519nm). The amount of fluorescence observed was normalized per mg of protein, as
451 determined by the Pierce BCA Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Scientific) and compared relative to
452 data from the unexposed control (i.e., time zero is 100% fluorescence intensity). Values reported
453 are the average of three biological replicates and the error bars indicate SEM.

454 ***Photolyase Activity Assays and Sequence/Structural Comparisons***

455 To assess *in vivo* photorepair, isolate L6-1, the DSM 20129 founder strain, and UV-evolved
456 strain DSM-9.3.3 were grown to stationary phase and exposed to UVCR using the same method
457 as described for the UVCR survival assays. After exposure, half of the cultures were
458 immediately placed in the dark and the other half were photoreactivated for 1 h under a daylight
459 lamp (GE F20T12-C50-ECO 20W Chroma 50 5000K Ecolux Daylight Light Bulb). All of the
460 cultures were subsequently incubated in the dark at 30°C until colonies formed. Survival rates
461 under dark and light conditions were calculated, and the lethal dose reducing the population by
462 90% (LD₉₀) was determined by fitting the survival curves to an exponential decay model. The
463 percent increase in LD₉₀ by photoreactivation was calculated using the equation:

$$464 \frac{LD90_{Light} - LD90_{Dark}}{LD90_{Dark}} \times 100 = \% \text{ Increase. Results shown represent the average of four biological}$$

465 replicates with error bars representing SEM.

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841 **Fig. 1. Comparison of phylogenetic relatedness among the bacterial strains and their**
842 **tolerance to UVCR. (A)** Maximum-likelihood analysis of 16S rRNA gene sequences from the
843 stratospheric isolates and closely related strains. UVCR tolerance of the **(B)** actinobacterial and
844 **(C)** betaproteobacterial strains based on the surviving number of cells (N) at each UVCR dose
845 divided by that in unexposed populations (N_0). The values plotted are averages from three
846 independent replicates. Error bars represent SEM.

847

848 **Fig. 2. DNA repair and ROS detoxification genes in *Curtobacterium* sp. L6-1 not found in**
849 **strain DSM 20129.** Genomes were compared using the BLAST Ring Image Generator (BRIG)
850 with the blastp algorithm. Rings represent the following (from innermost to outermost): **1)** GC
851 Content, **2)** GC skew of the L6-1 genome, **3)** percent identity to L6-1 of protein orthologs found
852 in strain DSM 20129, and **4)** DNA repair (**black**) and ROS detoxification (**grey**) genes. Genes
853 present in L6-1 but absent in DSM 20129 are indicated in **red** text.

854

855 **Fig. 3. DNA repair and ROS detoxification genes in *Noviherbaspirillum* sp. L7-7A not found**
856 **in strains TSA40 and TSA66.** Genomes were compared using the BLAST Ring Image Generator
857 (BRIG) with the blastp algorithm. Rings represent the following (from innermost to outermost):
858 **1)** GC Content, **2)** GC skew of the L7-7A genome, **3)** percent identity to L7-7A of protein
859 homologs found in strains TSA40 and TSA66, and **4)** DNA repair (**black**) and ROS detoxification
860 (**grey**) genes. Genes present in L7-7A but absent in both TSA40 and TSA66 are indicated in **red**
861 text.

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864

865 **Fig. 4. Directed evolution of UVCR tolerance in strain DSM 20129.** **A)** Schematic depiction of
866 the directed evolution method used to improve UVCR tolerance in strain DSM 20129. The details
867 of the procedure are described in the text. **B)** UVCR tolerance of DSM 20129 after each round of
868 UVCR exposure as compared to isolate L6-1, measured as the number of surviving CFUs (N) at
869 each UVCR dose divided by total number of CFUs in the unexposed control (N_0). Data shown are
870 the average of three independent replicates. Error bars represent SEM. **C)** Summary of the
871 mutations acquired during the directed evolution process. Mutation type (smaller pie chart) refers
872 only to the mutations occurring in coding sequences (green slice in larger pie chart). Gene
873 Ontology (GO) function annotations were determined for proteins that acquired amino acid point
874 mutations in their coding sequence (blue slice in smaller pie chart).

875

876 **Fig. 5. Cellular ROS concentrations and photolyase activity determination in UVCR treated**
877 **cells.** **A)** Intracellular ROS concentrations were quantified in the stratospheric isolate (L6-1), the
878 DSM 20129 wild-type parent (DSM 20129), and UV-evolved strain (DSM-9.3.3) using the free
879 radical probe H₂DCFDA. *E. coli* MG1655 and *D. radiodurans* R1 were used as controls and for
880 comparison. The average of three independent replicates with error bars representing SEM are
881 plotted. **B)** UVCR survival of strains under dark repair and photoreactivating (light) conditions.
882 Inset: Percent increase in LD₉₀ after 1 h incubation in white light vs. dark after UVCR exposure.
883 The data plotted are averages of four independent replicates with error bars representing SEM. (ns
884 = not significant; ** = P-value < 0.01; *** = P-value < 0.001; one-way ANOVA and Tukey's post-
885 test).

886

Table 1: General genome features of the stratospheric isolates and closely related reference strains.

Strain	Chr	Plasmids	Size (Mbp)	GC %	Genes	rRNA	tRNA	Proteins	ANI (±SD) %	AAI (±SD) %
<i>Curtobacterium sp.</i> L6-1	1	0	3.4	72.0	3,158	12	46	3,072	83.64 ± 4.97	79.97 ± 13.57
<i>Curtobacterium flaccumfaciens</i> DSM 20129	1	1	3.8	70.9	3,616	9	47	3,517	79.43 ± 4.89	65.93 ± 18.08
<i>Noviherbaspirillum denitrificans</i> TSA40	n.d.	n.d.	5.8	61.5	5,771	6	51	5,446	79.24 ± 4.83	67.38 ± 17.84
<i>Noviherbaspirillum sp.</i> L7-7A	3	0	5.2	62.0	4,771	15	64	4,581		
<i>Noviherbaspirillum autotrophicum</i> TSA66	n.d.	n.d.	5.4	59.9	5,130	15	59	4,980		

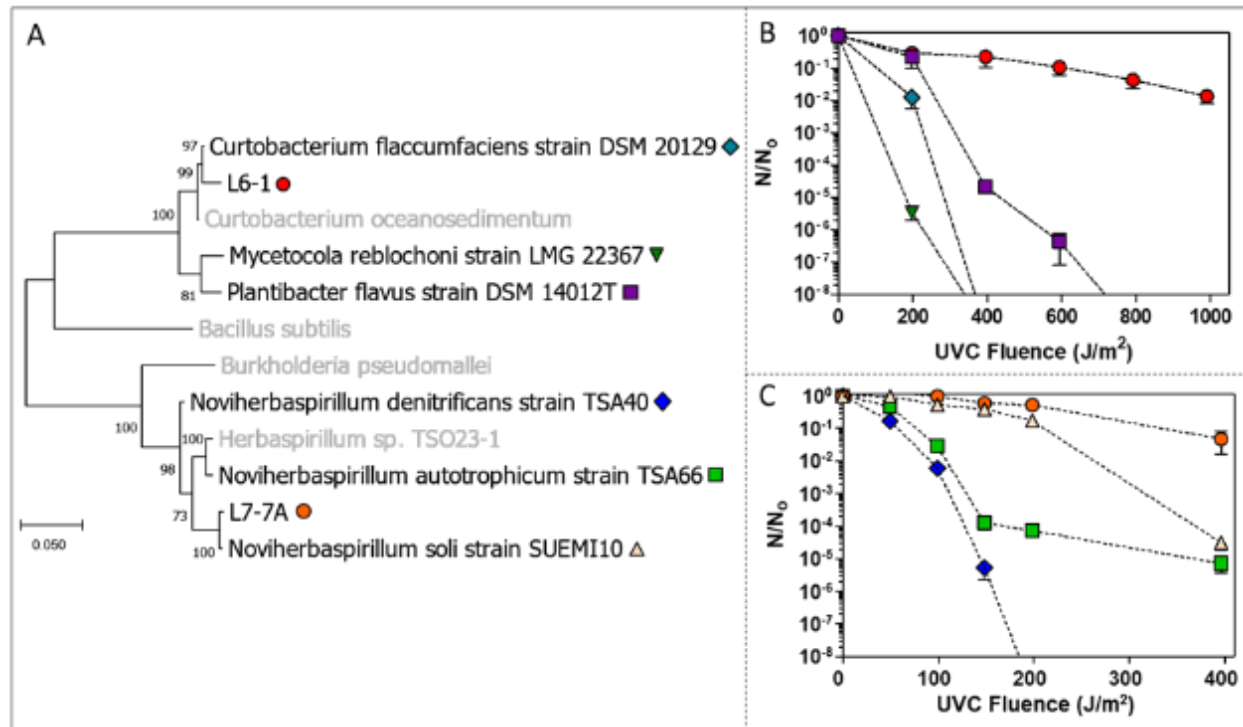
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Table 2: Mutations acquired in strain DSM 20129 during the directed evolution process.

Location	Position	Mutation	Strain of 1 st Occurrence					Annotation	Gene/Locus Tag	Description
			WT	1	3	6	7			
Chr	7,692	G→C	X					D180H (GAC→CAC)	K0028_00025 →	NAD(P)/FAD-dependent oxidoreductase
Chr	72,765	T→C		X				F122L (TTC→CTC)	trmD →	tRNA (guanosine(37)-N1)-methyltransferase TrmD
Chr	160,708	C→A			X			P183T (CCG→ACG)	K0028_00715 →	uracil-DNA glycosylase
Chr	205,567	G→A				X		E84K (GAG→AAG)	prfA →	peptide chain release factor 1
Chr	217,440	C→T				X		H457Y (CAC→TAC)	atpD →	F0F1 ATP synthase subunit beta
Chr	559,194	C→G		X				Q15H (CAG→CAC)	K0028_02565 ←	flagellar hook capping protein
Chr	612,632	C→A			X			A37S (GCC→TCC)	K0028_02820 ←	RNA polymerase sigma factor
Chr	682,540	C→G			X			A171P (GCC→CCC)	K0028_03160 ←	GrpB family protein
Chr	1,015,248	T→C			X			K13R (AAG→AGG)	K0028_04710 ←	cold-shock protein
Chr	1,073,811	G→A			X			G170S (GGC→AGC)	K0028_05010 →	carbohydrate-binding protein
Chr	1,173,658	G→T	X					R410L (CGG→CTG)	K0028_05480 →	HAMP domain-containing histidine kinase
Chr	1,448,846	G→C				X		A343G (GCG→GGG)	K0028_06725 ←	transaldolase family protein
Chr	1,750,735	2 bp→CT			X			coding (162-163/1803 nt)	K0028_08150 ←	S8 family serine peptidase
Chr	2,439,407	G→A			X			D78N (GAC→AAC)	K0028_11565 →	L-serine ammonia-lyase
Chr	2,583,948	C→A				X		V95F (GTC→TTC)	coaA ←	type I pantothenate kinase
Chr	2,778,691	A→G	X					L78P (CTG→CCG)	K0028_13275 ←	phosphotransferase
Chr	3,362,910	A→G				X		W367R (TGG→CGG)	K0028_16065 ←	DNA photolyase family protein
Chr	3,363,495	G→T				X		P172T (CCC→ACC)	K0028_16065 ←	DNA photolyase family protein
Plasmid	42,326	T→G				X		V108G (GTG→GGG)	K0028_17640 →	inorganic diphosphatase
Plasmid	63,755	G→A	X					W396* (TGG→TGA)	metK →	methionine adenosyltransferase

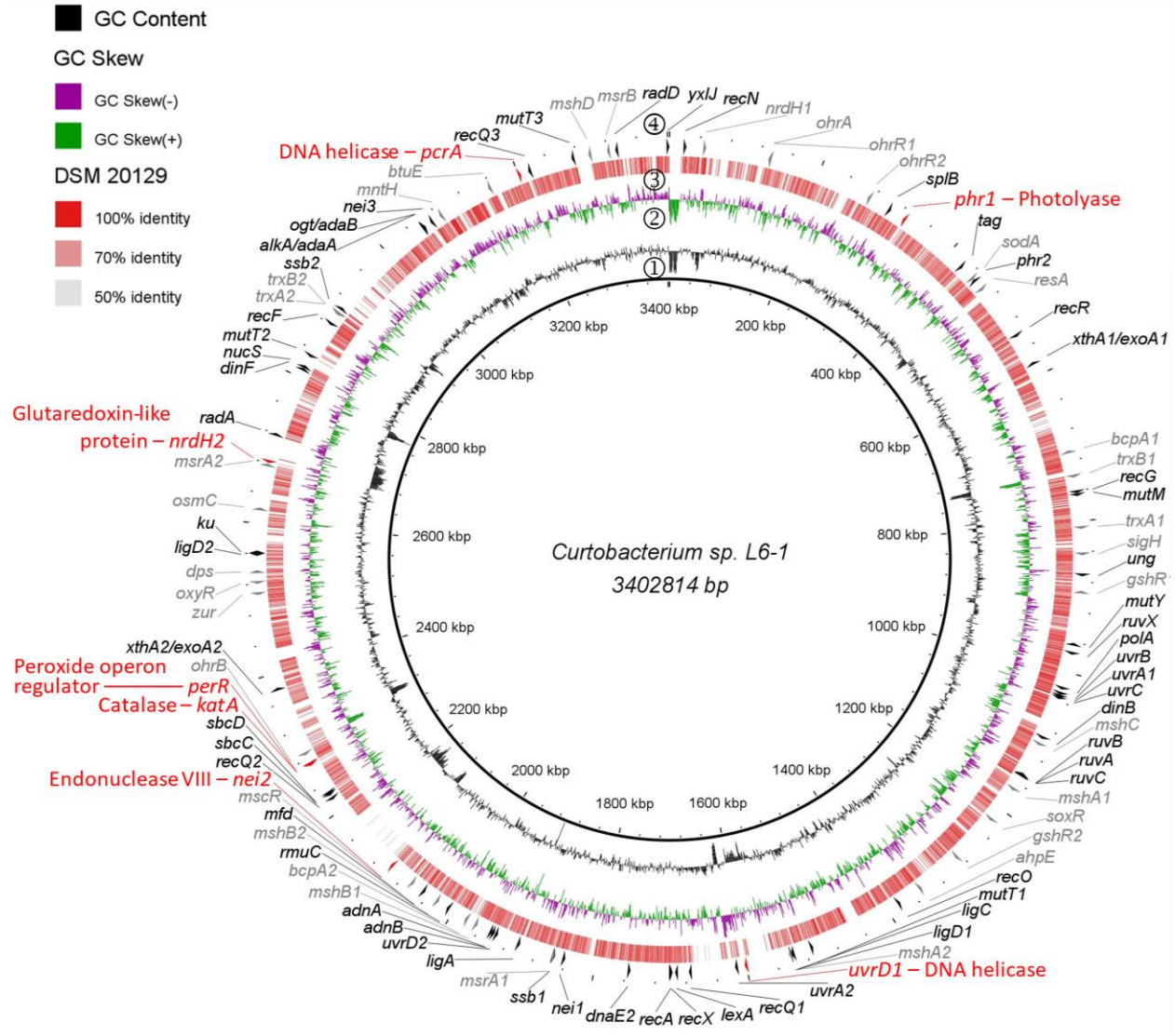
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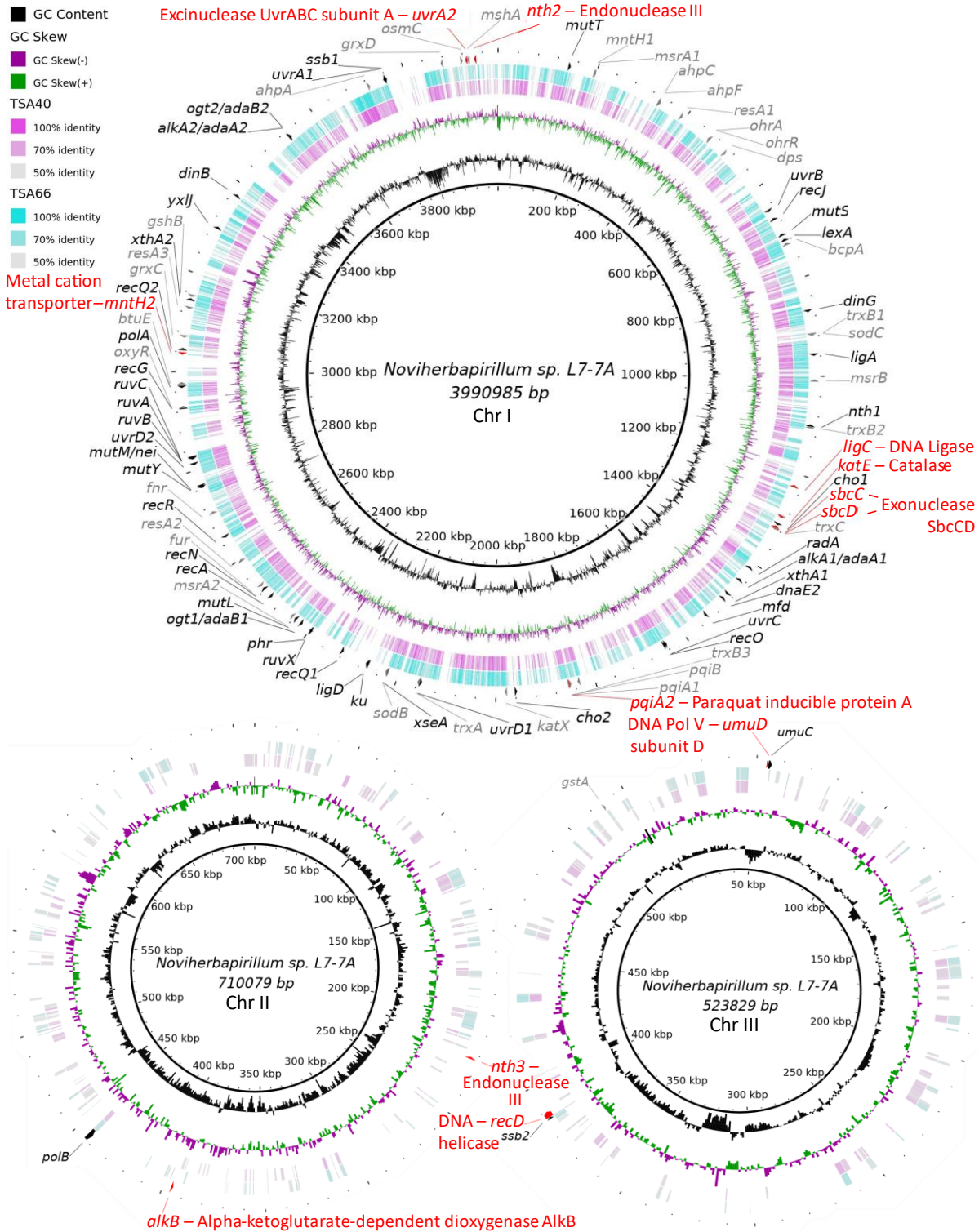


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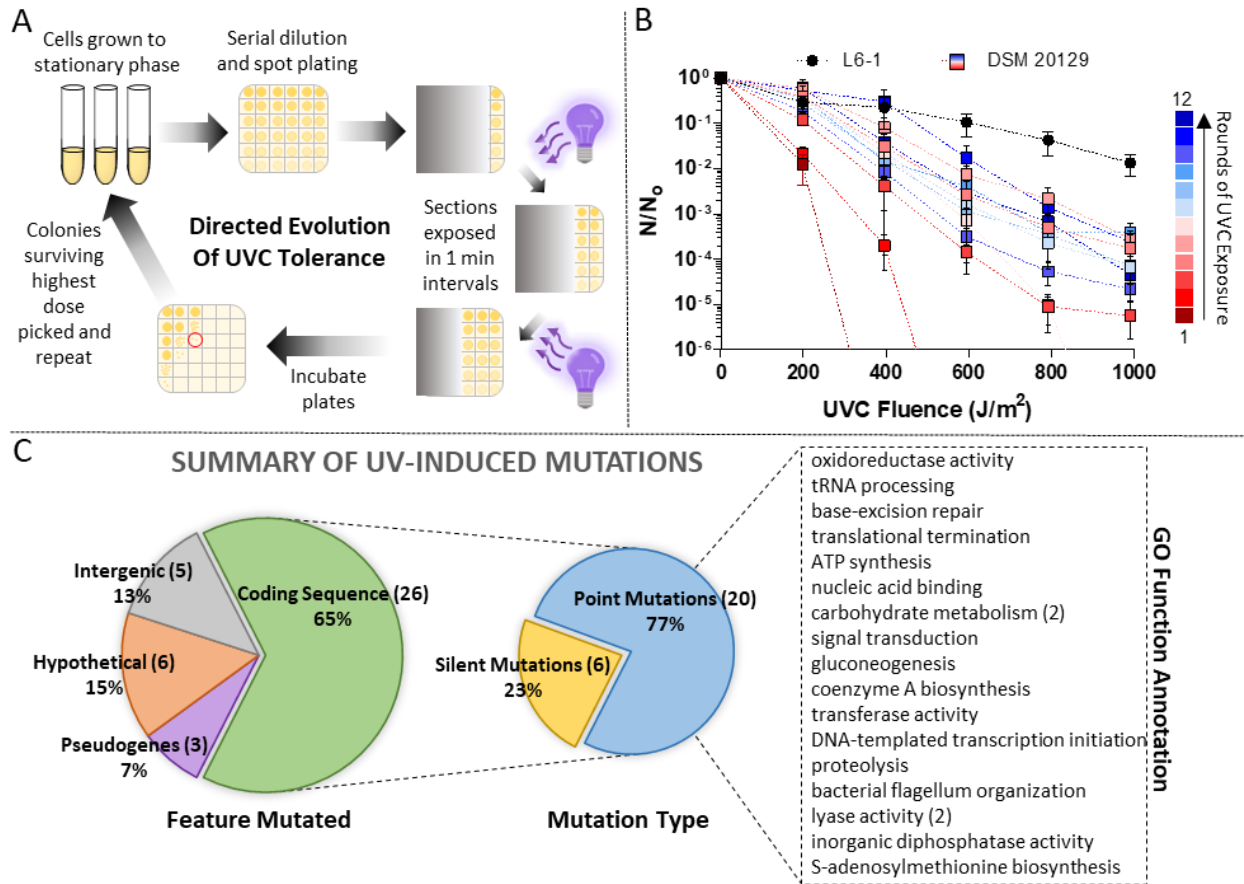


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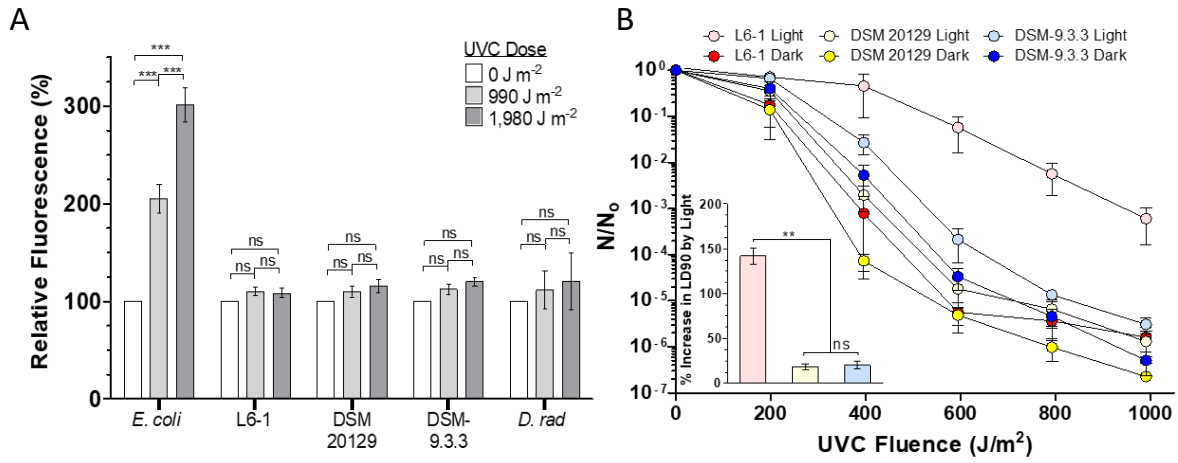
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