Pathogenicity and characterization of a novel Bacillus cereus sensu lato isolate toxic to the Mediterranean fruit fly Ceratitis capitata Wied.

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15 Abstract

16 The lethal and sub-lethal effects of sporulated cultures of a novel Bacillus cereus sensu lato 17 strain lacking detectable cry genes and identified through morphological and genetic analyses, 18 have been studied on the Mediterranean fruit fly Ceratitis capitata. The lethal effects on 19 young larvae were concentration dependent, with a median lethal concentration (LC₅₀) of 4.48 x 10^8 spores/g of diet. Sporulated cultures of this strain significantly extended development 20 21 time and reduced immature survival, and the size of emerging fly adults. Besides spores, the toxicity has been associated to the insoluble extra-spore fraction characterized through a 22 proteomic approach. The profile of the extra-spore protein fraction (ES) showed major protein 23 24 bands within the 35-65 kDa range. The results of mass spectrometry analysis highlighted the presence of putative virulence factors, including members of protein families previously 25 26 associated to the insecticidal action of other microbial entomopathogens. These proteins 27 include metalloproteases, peptidases and other enzymes.

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- 29

30 *Keywords:* Fruit fly; Tephritidae; bioinsecticide, entomopathogenic bacteria; *Bacillus*31 *thuringiensis*; toxicity.

32

34 **1. Introduction**

The Mediterranean fruit fly *Ceratitis capitata* Wiedemann (Diptera: Tephritidae) is a polyphagous species affecting more than 250 species of fruits and vegetables worldwide (White and Elson-Harris, 1994). In the Mediterranean basin, its host range includes several economically important crops, such as sour and sweet orange, grapefruit, loquat, apricot, peach, fig, pear, persimmon, prickly, pear and clementine (Liquido et al., 1991).

40 Due to its high reproductive potential, the management of this multivoltine pest is always 41 necessary to protect fruits from the destructive action of larvae (Papadopoulos, 2008).

42 Most conventional management methods involve the application of various synthetic 43 insecticidal formulations as foliage baiting or cover spraying. The negative impact of 44 chemicals on non-target organisms (Damalas and Eleftherohorinos, 2011) has over time 45 encouraged the research and development of safer methods of control including the use of low 46 impact insecticides, mass trapping and the release of natural enemies. Efforts have been made 47 to explore the opportunity to find and employ entomopathogenic microorganisms like fungi 48 and bacteria against C. capitata. In this prospect, the potential of specific strains of fungal 49 species Beauveria bassiana and Metarhizium anisopliae (Quesada-Moraga et al., 2006; Ortiz-50 Urquiza et al., 2010; Beris et al., 2013; Falchi et al., 2015), and of the entomopathogenic 51 bacterium Bacillus thuringiensis (Bt) (Gingrich, 1987; Karamanlindou et al., 1991; Martinez 52 et al., 1997) on diverse fly stages has been investigated. Similarly, the effects of B. 53 thuringiensis isolates have been studied on other Tephritid species such as the olive fly 54 Bactrocera oleae Gmelin (Alberola et al., 1999) and the Mexican fruit fly Anastrepha ludens 55 (Loew) (Robacker et al., 1996). In this context, the insecticidal action of bacterial protein 56 toxins produced by B. thuringiensis strains have been demonstrated, thus envisioning their 57 possible employment in bait sprays against adults or as a resource to develop transgenic plants 58 resistant to endophytic larval stages (Vidal-Quist et al., 2009 and 2010). A main concern with

59 different *B. thuringiensis* strains showing toxicity against flies is the production of unwanted 60 secondary metabolites like the β -exotoxin, whose use in agriculture is prohibited (Liu et al., 61 2014). However, Vidal-Quist et al. (2010) have demonstrated the activity of Cyt1Aa protein 62 from *B. thuringiensis* serovar *israelensis* against *C. capitata*.

The infectivity of other bacterial species to the Mediterranean fruit fly has been in a few cases reported (Sarakatsanou et al., 2011; Molina et al., 2010), even if the molecular implications and the role of specific bacterial metabolites in the interaction with the host have not been explained.

The *Bacillus cereus* phylogenetic cluster, which includes *B. thuringiensis*, is represented by close related bacterial species whose pathogenic properties are highly divergent. While their genetic relationships are still under debate, the insecticidal potential of new isolates in this group is of actual interest. Due to the production of typical parasporal crystals, *B. thuringiensis* can generally be phenotypically distinguished from other *B. cereus* group members (Vega and Kaya, 2012).

73 The present study investigates the effects of a recently isolated acrystalliferous *Bacillus* 74 *cereus sensu lato* strain on immature *C. capitata* survival and development in relation to 75 specific bacterial fractions characterized through a proteomic approach.

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77 2. Materials and methods

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79 2.1. Bacterial strain identification and preliminary characterization

The present study was conducted with a bacterial isolate selected for its toxicity against *C*. *capitata* larvae in a screening program including several *B. thuringiensis*-like isolates. Among more than 300 isolates assayed, this strain was the most effective against *C. capitata* larvae, and no toxicity was observed against adults. In addition, no effects were detected on other fly species like the olive fly *Bactrocera oleae* Gmelin (Diptera: Tephritidae) and the house fly *Musca domestica* L. (Diptera: Muscidae). Pathogenic effects were associated to whole spore
suspensions and not to bacterial vegetative cells (Floris et al., 2007).

87 Spores of this strain were found in soil samples from Zimbabwe (Southern Africa) and were 88 permanently stored in glycerol at -80°C in the B. thuringiensis-like collection of the 89 Dipartimento di Agraria (University of Sassari, Italy). For taxonomic identification, 90 preliminary morphological examinations under light and transmission electron microscopy 91 (TEM) were conducted. Subsequently, different genes were amplified and sequenced. These 92 include the 16S rRNA gene encoding for the Small subunit ribosomal RNA, the two house-93 keeping genes gyrB and aroE encoding for the subunit B protein of DNA gyrase 94 (topoisomerase type I) and for the shikimate dehydrogenase, respectively. Specific flagellin 95 (H antigen) genes (hag) were also used to complement phylogenetic analyses.

96 Genomic DNA of the bacterium was routinely isolated from overnight cultured cells 97 employing the DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit (QIAGEN GmbH, Hilden, Germany) in 98 compliance with the manufacturer's instructions. PCRs were performed using a Veriti[™] 99 Thermal Cycler (Applied Biosystems) in a total volume of 25 µl containing 1x reaction buffer 100 (supplied with 2.0 mM Mg²⁺); approximately 100 ng DNA; 0.3 µM of each primer; 0.3 mM 101 of each dNTPs; and 0.5 U of KAPA HiFi HotStart DNA polymerase (KAPABIOSYSTEMS, 102 of Boston. USA). The following sets primers were used: BcF 5'-103 GGATTAAGAGCTTGCTCTTAT-3' 5'-(forward) 16S2 and 104 AAGCCCTATCTCTAGGGTTT-3' (reverse) for 16S rRNA (Chen and Tsen, 2002); gyrB-F1 105 5'-ATGGAACAAAAGCAAATGCA-3' (forward) 5'and gyrB-R1 106 TTAAATATCAAGGTTTTTCA-3' (reverse) for aroE-F1 5'gyr; 107 ATCGGAAATCCAATTGGACA-3' (forward) (5'and aroE-R1 108 CCTGTCCACATTTCAAAYGC-3' (reverse) for the *aroE* gene (Soufiane and Côté, 2009);

109 slt-F1, 5'-ATATGCAAGCACTTCTTTTACT-3' (forward) 5'and fliC-R6, 110 ATTHGCDGGATTATCMGAAGC-3' (reverse) for the amplification of the flagellin 111 sequences between *slt* and *fliC* genes (Xu and Côté, 2008). To amplify the *hag* allele internal 112 the following pairs used: 5'sequences, primers were BtHag-F1, 113 AGTACATGCGCCAAAACCAAG-3' (forward) and BtHag-R1, 5'-114 GTTTGCTTGAGAAAGCATGCT-3' (reverse); BtHag-F2, 5'-115 GGGGTTCTTAATCATGAGAA-3' (forward) and BtHag-R2, 5'-

116 TAACTCAAATGGCTTATTGT -3' (reverse) (Xu and Côté, 2006).

117 PCR conditions were set according to the above mentioned references and PCR products were 118 routinely analyzed by agarose gel electrophoresis using SYBR® Safe DNA stain (Life 119 Technologies Europe BV, Bleiswijk, The Netherlands) for DNA visualization using UV 120 transillumination. The bands of interest were excised from gel, and the DNA was extracted 121 using a QIAquick gel extraction kit (Qiagen). Purified amplicons were supplied to the Sanger 122 sequencing facilities of BMR Genomics (Padova, Italy) and output sequences were analyzed 123 with NCBI Local the Basic Alignment Search Tool 124 (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/blast/Blast.cgi).

In addition to taxonomic studies, genomic DNA was enriched with the bacterial plasmid isolated with PureYieldTM Plasmid Midiprep System (Promega®, Madison, USA) in compliance with manufacturer's instructions, and used as a template for the detection of possible *cry* genes, using the PCR primer system designed by Noguerra and Ibarra (2010) on conserved regions of the *cry* family. These analyses were conducted using *B. thuringiensis kurstaky* HD1 as a positive control.

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132 2.2. Bacterial preparations

133 Bacteria were routinely grown in conical flasks containing 1 1 T3 medium (Travers et al., 134 1987) incubated at 30 °C with shaking at 180 rpm. An aliquot (10 ml) of an overnight LB pre-135 culture inoculated with 1 ml heat-activated spore suspension (70°C for 30 min) was used as 136 inoculum to facilitate culture synchronization. In these conditions, culture sporulation and 137 sporangia lysis usually occurred within 72 hrs, as monitored by phase microscopy. Sporulated 138 cultures were harvested by centrifugation at 10,000 x g for 10 min at 4 °C, washed three times 139 in sterile water to eliminate main cell debris, and quantified using a Thoma chamber (E. 140 Hartnack, Berlin, Germany). Culture supernatants and these spore suspensions at a concentration of 2 x 10⁹ spores/ml were stored at -20 °C until use in bioassays. As confirmed 141 142 by phase microscopy observations, no parasporal crystals were detected in these spore 143 suspensions employed in bioassays.

At a later stage, an additional cleaning step was included in preparation procedures, in order to separate spores from other insoluble components that could be harvested by centrifugation. For this purpose, whole spore suspensions obtained as previously described, were submitted to five consecutive centrifugation cycles at 5,000 x g for 3 min at 4 °C. The resulting supernatant was ultra-centrifuged for 1 h at 50,000 x g to collect the insoluble extra-spore (ES) fraction, while the remaining pellet was represented by pure spores.

150

151 2.3. Bioassays

Experiments were conducted with insects from a *C. capitata* colony established in the
entomology laboratory of the Dipartimento di Agraria of the University of Sassari (Italy).
Insect rearing methods and conditions have been described elsewhere (Falchi et al., 2015).

Dose-response bioassays were conducted to determine the lethal effects caused by different bacterial preparations, including whole spore suspensions, culture supernatants and, at a later stage, pure spores and the insoluble extra-spore fraction. For this purpose, the bioassay design involved four replications consisting of four groups of 24 second instar larvae to be maintained in 96-well polystyrene microplates (one larva per well) filled with an artificial diet made as described in Falchi et al. (2015). The diet was incorporated with the different bacterial preparations to be assayed or was left untreated (control). Insects were routinely incubated inside a growth chamber at 25 °C and 60% relative humidity, and were inspected daily. In line with similar experiments conducted with fly larvae, mortality data were assessed after 5 days (Floris et al., 2007; Ruiu et al., 2007).

In preliminary experiments, the spore suspension obtained harvesting and washing the whole sporulated culture was assayed at a standard concentration of 10^9 spores per g of diet, while culture supernatant was mixed with the diet at a 1:1 rate. Subsequently, bioassays were conducted with a range of 7 concentrations used to estimate the median lethal concentration (LC₅₀) value: $1x10^9$, $7.5x10^8$; $5x10^8$, $2.5x10^8$, $1.2x10^8$, $0.6x10^8$ and $0.3x10^8$ spores per g of diet. This experiment was repeated three times with different batches of flies and bacterial preparations.

Additional observations were conducted to study the sub-lethal effects of sporulated cultures on *C. capitata* larvae exposed to a selected range of concentrations $(5x10^8 \text{ and } 1x10^8 \text{ spores/g})$ of diet). In this case, four replicated groups of 24 larvae were individually maintained until pupation in 96 wells microplate as previously described. The pupal development time, the pupal weight and the percentage of adult emergence calculated on the number of pupated insects were determined.

In a separate experiment, four replicated groups of 10 adults (5 males and 5 females), emerging from larvae reared on a diet treated with a concentration of 5×10^8 , 1×10^8 spores per g of diet or untreated (control), were maintained in transparent plastic boxes where food was provided *ad libitum* as a solid powder containing sugar and brewer's yeast hydrolysate (1:1), while water was supplied by a cotton thread soaked with water. On a lateral face, each box had a window (3 x 2 cm) covered with gauze that allowed females to insert the ovipositor and
to lay eggs that were collected into a water-containing plate underneath. From the 5th day on,
the number of laid eggs were recorded for a 3 weeks period. During the same period and until
death of all flies, insect mortality was assessed daily.

Egg viability for each treatment group and replicate was determined counting the number of larvae emerging from 20 eggs collected in three different dates during the bioassay (after 6, 10 and 15 days). For this purpose eggs were kept at 25 °C in a plate onto wet filter paper and at 90% relative humidity until hatching.

Further dose-response experiments were conducted to assay pure spores and the ES fraction obtained from the sporulated culture as previously described. This fraction was assayed at a concentration of 1 mg/g of diet, which was in line with the amount of proteins normally associated to 10^{A9} spores. Each experiment involved four replications (24 larvae each) and was repeated three times with different batches of insects and of bacterial preparations.

196

197 2.3. Statistical analysis

198 Data were analyzed using SAS software (version 9.1) with significance level set at $\alpha = 0.05$ 199 (SAS Institute, 2004).

200 Probit procedure (Finney, 1971) was used to analyze dose-response data to determine the
201 median lethal concentration (LC₅₀).

General Linear Models (GLM) of ANOVA were used to analyze data on immature development (larval and pupal development time, pupal weight and percentage of adult emergence). Data on larval mortality, on adult longevity and fecundity, and on egg viability, were compared across treatments using one-way ANOVA (factor: concentration). When significant treatment effects were detected, ANOVAs were followed by Least Significant Difference (LSD) tests for post-hoc comparison of means.

209 2.3. Proteomic studies

210 Proteins extracted from the ES fraction were analyzed by polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis 211 and subsequent mass spectrometry. Protein concentration was routinely determined using the 212 Folin-phenol reagent (Lowry et al., 1951) and bovine serum albumin (Sigma) as a standard. 213 For protein extractions, ES was resuspended in 1% SDS and 0.01% 2-mercaptoethanol, 214 followed by boiling for 5 min before centrifugation for 5 min at 10,000 x g. The supernatant 215 was resuspended in Laemmli buffer and analyzed by 10% SDS-PAGE (Laemmli and Favre, 216 1973). Gels were routinely stained with Coomassie and digitized with an ImageScanner III 217 (GE Healthcare). Three biological replicates were analyzed for each group. 218 Individual regions including major protein bands (molecular weight ranging between 35 and 219 65 kDa) obtained from the extra-spore fraction were manually excised from the gels, 220 destained and subjected to in situ tryptic digestion before analysis by MS/MS (Biosa et al., 221 2011). Tryptic peptides were supplied to the proteomic facilities of Porto Conte Ricerche Srl 222 (Tramariglio, Alghero, Italy) where samples were analyzed using an LTQ-Orbitrap Velos 223 (Thermo Scientific, San Jose, CA, USA) interfaced with an UltiMate 3000 RSLCnano LC

system (Dionex, Sunnyvale, CA, USA, now part of Thermo Scientific) as described in Tanca
et al. (2013). Mass spectrometry output data were analyzed on a protein discoverer (v.1.4i,
Thermo Scientific, Bremen, Germany) for protein identification employing an in-house
Mascot server (Matrix Science, London, UK) and processed against the NCBI database
(http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov).

229

230	3.	Results	



The *16S rRNA* gene sequence showed the highest percentage sequence similarity (99%) for bacterial strains belonging to the *B. cereus* cluster including *B. thuringiensis*, *B. cereus sensu stricto*, *B. mycoides*, and *B. weihenstephanensis*. The *gyrB* and *aroE* gene nucleotide sequences confirmed the highest percentage similarity (99%) for *B. thuringiensis* and *B. cereus sensu stricto*. DNA sequences of these genes were deposited in the GenBank database (National Centre for Biotechnology Information, Bethesda, Maryland) under accession numbers KP297917, KP318802, KP318803, respectively.

Complementary observations on flagellin sequences showed at most 95% similarity with
different *B. thuringiensis* serovars including *jegathesan*, *monterrey*, *canadensis*, *darmstadiensis*, *londrina*, and *galleriae*, and 94 % with *B. cereus*.

243 Besides, no *cry* genes were detected by PCR and no parasporal bodies were observed by 244 phase or electron microscopy (Fig. 1).

- Given the results of our observations and in line with the taxonomic relationships among members of the *B. cereus* cluster, the new isolate is considered as *B. cereus sensu lato* (*s.l.*).
- 247

248 3.2. Bioassays

As a result of preliminary observations, significant levels (> 80%) of larval mortality were observed when 24-hr-old *C. capitata* larvae were reared on an artificial diet incorporated with a sporulated culture (10⁹ spores/g of diet) of the *B. cereus s.l.* isolate (F_{2,33} = 385.27, P < 0.0001). In the same bioassays, no significant lethal effects were detected for the culture supernatant. The lethal effects were concentration dependent with a LC₅₀ of 4.48 x 10⁸ spores/g of diet (FL = 4.03-4.96, Slope \pm SE = 1.91 \pm 0.12, χ^2 = 235.66, P < 0.0001). The sub-lethal effects of *B. cereus s.l.* on immature development are shown in table 1.

256 Development time from egg hatching to pupation significantly increased in larvae reared on

treated diets ($F_{2,225} = 66.96$, P < 0.0001), with higher effects on larvae exposed to the highest concentration assayed.

Average pupal weight was affected by treatments at the highest concentration assayed ($F_{2,9} = 4.98$, P = 0.0349), with a 27.3% reduction in comparison to the control, but it was not significantly reduced for the low concentration treatment.

Pupal development time was not significantly influenced by treatments ($F_{2,186}$ = 1.82, P = 0.1656), while the percentage of adult emergence was reduced in pupae from treated diets ($F_{2,9}$ = 11.93, P = 0.0029) with a significant decrease (25.3%) for the highest concentration assayed.

The sub-lethal effects observed on *C. capitata* adults emerging from larvae reared on *B. cereus s.l.* treated diets are shown in table 2. Differences between treated and control groups were not significant for male ($F_{2,57} = 1.85$, P = 0.1664) and female ($F_{2,57} = 0.35$, P = 0.7097) longevity, and for egg viability ($F_{2,33} = 0.13$, P = 0.8754). A significant decrease in fecundity was observed in the group treated with the highest bacterial concentration in comparison to the control ($F_{2,9} = 8.22$, P = 0.0093).

Significant mortality was determined by both pure spores and the ES fraction even if at a lower degree compared to the whole spore suspensions ($F_{3,44} = 174.27$, P < 0.0001) (Table 3).

274

275 *3.3. Proteomic studies*

The proteome of the insoluble ES fraction obtained from sporulated cultures of the *B. cereus s.l.* strain showed major proteins within the 35-65 kDa range (Fig. 2).

Based on the results of mass spectrometry, we successfully analyzed more than 700 internal peptide sequences from 5 main gel regions (Fig. 2). The most significant results of protein identification are summarized in Table 4. These proteins include metalloproteases, aldehyde dehydrogenases, molecular *chaperones* (GroEL), peptidases, and other enzymes.

283 Discussion

284 The present study demonstrated that the Mediterranean fruit fly larvae are susceptible to a 285 newly isolated *B. cereus s.l.* strain. The potential of *B. thuringiensis* against the Mediterranean 286 fruit fly was formerly reported by Gingrich (1987), followed by different studies highlighting 287 the susceptibility of other Tephritid fruit flies such as the Olive fruit fly Bactrocera oleae 288 (Gmelin) (Karamanlidou et al., 1991; Alberola et al., 1999) and the Mexican fruit fly 289 Anastrepha ludens (Loew) (Robacker et al., 1996) to different Bt isolates. In a screening 290 program involving a wide variety of B. thuringiensis strains from citrus orchards in Spain, 291 Vidal-Quist et al. (2009) observed a maximum toxicity against C. capitata adults of barely 292 30%. Other studies reported a higher susceptibility of larvae (Floris et al., 2007; Aboussaid et 293 al., 2011). In these studies the insecticidal action against fruit flies was associated to both 294 spore-crystal mixtures or to the soluble and heat-stable β -exotoxin, a metabolite certain Bt 295 strains produce and release in the culture broth. Robacker et al. (2000) demonstrated the 296 effectiveness of pure spore-crystal suspensions against A. ludens, which supported a possible 297 direct action of Cry toxins in the gut. Later on, Vidal-Quist et al. (2010) for the first time 298 demonstrated the activity of Cyt1Aa delta-endotoxin from B. thuringiensis serovar israelensis 299 against C. capitata larvae, thus envisioning possible future biotechnological approaches for 300 the development of new management strategies for this pest. In this case, authors showed that 301 Bti spores and crystal mixtures were not active, while solubilized and activated toxins were 302 significantly toxic. In the case of our B. cereus s.l. strain showing toxicity against C. capitata 303 larvae, no parasporal crystals were observed by electron microscopy, and neither Cry proteins 304 nor cry genes were detected through proteomic and genomic analyses, respectively. The 305 insecticidal action was never associated to the culture supernatant, thus excluding a major 306 implication of possible soluble metabolites produced by the bacterium. On the contrary,

307 toxicity was associated to spores and to the insoluble extra-spore protein fraction harvested 308 from sporulated cultures. This is different from the results obtained by Molina et al. (2010) in 309 bioassays with a *Bacillus pumilus* strain toxic to *C. capitata* larvae. In that case, a low 310 temperature treatment of the whole bacterial culture (cell fractions and supernatant) is 311 required to activate virulence factors.

In line with other studies involving the entomopathogenic bacterium *Brevibacillus laterosporus* and the house fly *Musca domestica* L. (Ruiu et al. 2007), the insecticidal effects of the *B. cereus s.l.* isolate were concentration dependent with a median lethal concentration of spores in larval diet comparable to values observed in studies with environmental isolates of *Bacillus thuringiensis* against Diptera (Lonc et al., 2001).

317 When administered at sub-lethal concentrations, sporulated cultures of this strain significantly 318 reduced immature survival, extended larval development time, reduced pupal weight, adult 319 emergence rate, and fecundity. Also these effects were concentration dependent, which 320 corroborates the outcomes of former studies with diptera such as the house fly (Ruiu et al., 321 2006) and the mosquito Aedes aegypti L. (Hare and Nasci, 1986). The mechanism causing 322 such reduction in adult reproduction fitness has not been explained, however it is known that 323 a lower fecundity of fly females emerging from smaller pupae is associated to a reduced 324 number of ovarioles (Bennetova et al., 1981).

Effects on survival and reproduction of *C. capitata* were also observed in studies with the insect endosymbiont *Wolbachia pipientis* Hertig (Sarakatsanou et al., 2011). Transinfection events with some strains of this bacterium reduced survival in egg and pupal stage and caused a slight decrease in female fecundity on specific Mediterranean fruit fly lines.

Both the lethal and sub-lethal effects caused by *B. cereus s.l.* on *C. capitata* can provide an important contribution to the prospect of the eventual use of the bacterium or its virulence factors as pest management active ingredients.

Toxic effects of sporulated cultures against C. capitata larvae are partly associated to a 332 333 proteinaceous extra-spore fraction produced by the bacterium, which contains putative 334 virulence factors. The characterization of this fraction focused on the identification of major 335 proteins using electrophoresis combined with mass spectrometry. These useful proteomics 336 tools allowed us to identify the most abundant proteins that were represented by functional 337 molecules like chaperones (GroEL), proteins with primary metabolic functions like aldehyde 338 dehydrogenases, and degradative enzymes like metalloproteases and various peptidases. 339 Some of these proteins have been found also as component of *B. cereus* exosporium (Charlton 340 et al., 1999) and extracellular proteome (Gohar et al., 2005), and belong to families that have 341 already been associated to the insecticidal action of diverse entomopathogens. Interestingly, 342 toxicity of the B. cereus s.l. was associated to both pure spores and the extra-spore fraction, 343 even if at a lower degree compared to the whole sporulated culture. This might be in relation 344 to the presence of the same virulence factors in the exosporium and in the extra-spore 345 proteome, in addition to a synergistic action of spore germination (Liu et al., 1998). Besides, 346 it is not excluded that the insoluble extra-spore fraction may contain fragments of the 347 exosporium.

348 Among putative virulence factors are bacterial metalloproteases, with special regard to zinc 349 containing proteases, that are known to act occasionally as toxins in many pathogenic bacteria 350 or they may play indirect roles in pathogenicity (Miyoshi and Shinoda, 2000). This is the case 351 of the 51.8 kDa metalloprotease released by the nematode symbiont Photorhabdus 352 luminescens and showing oral toxicity against the diamondback moth Plutella xylostella L. 353 (Chang et al., 2013). A significant role in virulence of zinc metalloproteases produced by 354 acrystalliferous B. thuringiensis strains when the host is infected via the oral route, was also 355 observed (Fedhila et al., 2002). Although specific investigations are required to demonstrate 356 the actual role of the different proteases produced by the *B. cereus s.l.* strain, their possible implication in the observed effects on *C. capitata* is in line with a well known potential of a
variety of microbial proteases to act as insect toxins targeting different sites like the cuticle,
the peritrophic matrix in the gut, the hemocoel, haemocytes and fat bodies (Harrison and
Bonning, 2010; Manachini et al., 2013; Castagnola and Stock, 2014). Similarly, other bacteria
showing pathogenicity against *C. capitata* larvae, like *B. pumilus*, are known to produce
abundant extracellular proteases (Yu et al., 2014).

Among other proteins identified in the ES fraction produced by the *B. cereus s.l.* strain there is a 53 kDa protein showing high homology with a *B. cereus* betaine-aldehyde dehydrogenase whose insecticidal potential still need to be demonstrated, even though the contribution of this group of proteins to bacterial virulence and pathogenesis has recently been reported (Lee et al., 2014).

368 The extra-spore proteome of our strain contained a patatin-like phospholipase homolog,
369 which may display insect inhibitory properties, as demonstrated against larvae of Coleoptera
370 (Alibhai et al., 2006).

371 Among other major proteins identified in the protein profile of the B. cereus s.l. strain there 372 are molecular chaperones (GroEL), normally involved in protein folding. Some studies show 373 the implication of chaperone-like proteins in enhancing Cry toxins synthesis and 374 crystallization (Crickmore and Ellar, 1992; Diaz-Mendoza et al., 2012). More recent studies 375 highlighted an insecticidal 58-kDa GroEL homolog with chitin binding activity, secreted by 376 Xenorhabdus nematophila in the culture medium through outer membrane vesicles (Joshi et 377 al., 2008). This might not be our case, but we could speculate that these proteins could help 378 the synthesis of other bacterial virulence factors.

379 In conclusion, the present study determined the lethal and sub-lethal effects caused by 380 sporulated cultures of a new *B. cereus s.l.* strain against *C. capitata* larvae. As a result of 381 bioassays combined with proteomic analysis, bacterial toxicity is associated both to spores

and to the extra-spore proteome. The characterization of the latter fraction highlighted major proteins, whose possible implication in the pathogenesis mechanisms has been discussed.
Further studies are needed to determine the specific role of each of these compounds and to evaluate their possible use for the development of new bio-based pest management ingredients.

387

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391

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Table 1 Means (± SEM) of larval development time, pupal weight, pupal development time and percentage of emergence of *Ceratitis capitata* larvae reared on *Bacillus cereus s. l.* treated diets.

Treatment concentration (spore/g)	n ^a	Larval development time ^b (days)	Pupal weight (mg)	n ^c	Pupal development time ^d (days)	Adult emergence (%)
5x10 ⁸	52	$12.18 \pm 0.76 a^{e}$	7.48 ± 0.76 a	43	5.84 ± 0.36 a	66.68 ± 1.65 a
1x10 ⁸	83	10.26 ± 0.72 b	$9.58\pm0.65~b$	73	$5.83\pm0.39~a$	$85.41 \pm 1.06 \text{ b}$
Control	93	9.73 ± 0.41 c	$10.29\pm0.52\ b$	83	6.03 ± 0.31 a	$89.21\pm0.81~b$

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546	^a Number of surviving pupae from 96 treated larvae.
547	^b Days from egg hatching to pupation.
548	^c Number of emerged <i>C. capitata</i> adults.
549	^d Days from pupation to adult emergence.
550	^e Means followed by different letters are significantly different (GLM followed by LSD test: $P < 0.05$).
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Table 2 Means (± SEM) of longevity, fecundity, percentage of egg hatching of
ovipositing females of *Ceratitis capitata* emerging form larvae reared on *Bacillus*

cereus s. l. treated diets.

Treatment	Longevity (days) ^a		Fecundity		
concentration (spore/g)	Male	Female	- (min-max) n	Egg hatching ^b %	
5x10 ⁸	$19.95 \pm 2.31 \ a^{c}$	26.35 ± 1.06 a	164.5 ± 21.02 a	$96.67 \pm 0.42a$	
1x10 ⁸	23.45 ± 1.03 a	27.10 ± 1.08 a	258.2 ± 22.97 b	97.50 ± 1.25 a	
Control	24.45± 1.82 a	28.15 ± 1.13 a	296.3 ± 26.60 b	97.08 ± 1.10 a	

576 ^a Days from adult emergence to adult death.

^b Mean values of egg hatching recorded after 6, 10 and 15 days from adult emergence.

^c Means in each column followed by different letters, are significantly different (ANOVA followed by LSD test:

P < 0.05).

Table 3

584 Mortality (mean ± SEM) of *Ceratitis capitata* larvae reared on a diet incorporated 585 with different fractions of the *Bacillus cereus s. l.* strain.

Treatment ^a	Mortality (%)
Whole spore suspension	$82.64 \pm 2.61 a^{b}$
Pure spores	$55.56\pm3.64~b$
Extra-spore fraction (ES)	40.63 ± 1.99 c
Control (untreated)	$3.47\pm1.00\;d$

^a Whole spore suspensions and pure spores were applied at a concentration of 10^9 spores/g of diet, while the

590 extra-spore fraction was applied at a concentration of 1 mg/g of diet.

^b Means in each column followed by different letters are significantly different (LSD test, P < 0.05).

Table 4 595 Major pro

595 Major proteins of the *B. cereus s. l.* insoluble extraspore fraction (ES).

Gel	Accession	Protein	Coverage	Peptides	MOWSE	PI	MW
region	number		(%)		Score		(kDa)
No. ^a							
1	218235093	Molecular chaperone	99.63	84	21382.08	4.84	57.4
		GroEL					
	446746191	Peptide ABC	78.37	75	4395.26	8.46	63.4
		transporter substrate-					
		binding protein					
	434374375	Oligoendopeptidase F	68.97	56	2997.81	4.94	66.1
	010021104	Constant of the	00 74	25	1024.00	6.02	65.0
	218231104	Succinate	80.74	33	1924.00	6.02	03.9
		dehydrogenase					
		flavoprotein subunit					
2	449090484	Aldehyde	98.18	66	8162.62	5.66	53.7
		dehydrogenase					
	30020418	2-methylcitrate	94.98	53	3813.71	5.63	53.4
		dehydratase					

	445956496	Penicillin-binding	62.47	39	2618.60	5.64	54.6
		protein					
	446410102	Aminopeptidase A	58.50	30	1251.16	4.88	53.6
 3	296501054	Homogentisate 1,2- dioxygenase	94.10	43	6997.79	6.68	45.1
	446773703	Aminotransferase	89.09	44	3291.32	6.00	50.1
	30021879	Zinc protease	91.04	44	2347.43	5.36	48.9
 4	402559902	Acetoin	85.17	46	5057.10	5.19	37.0
		dehydrogenase E1					
		component					
	446954252	Peptidase M28	94.40	32	2117.55	6.55	39.2
 5	446457953	Formamidase	95.48	31	1970.29	5.30	36.7
	449090436	TPR domain protein	93.80	39	1699.33	5.85	43.9
	218231626	Patatin phospholipase	51.26	13	512.15	6.16	40.7

600 601 ^a Numbers indicate regions that were excised from SDS-polyacrylamide gels for Mass Spectrometry analysis.

603 Figure legends

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- 605 Fig. 1 Electron micrograph showing a sporangium of the *Bacillus cereus s.l.* isolate. SW,
- 606 sporangium wall; Sp, spore; SC, spore coat; Ex, exosporium.



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608 Fig. 2 – Representative protein profile on 10% SDS-PAGE of the Bacillus cereus s.l. isolate

609 ES fraction. Numbers indicate gel regions that were analyzed by mass spectrometry.



