1 Seawater salt-trapped Pseudomonas aeruginosa survives for years and gets

- 2 primed for salinity tolerance
- 3 Hamouda Elabed^{1,2}, Enrique González-Tortuero^{3,4}, Claudia Ibacache-Quiroga^{2,7}, Amina
- 4 Bakhrouf⁶, Paul Johnston^{4,5}, Kamel Gaddour⁶, Jesús Blázquez², Alexandro Rodríguez-
- 5 Rojas^{5*}.

6

9

12

15

17

19

22 23

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

- 7 Laboratory of Contagious Diseases and Biologically Active Substances LR99-ES27
- 8 Faculty of Pharmacy of Monastir, University of Monastir, Tunisia
- Department of Microbial Biotechnology, Spanish National Center for Biotechnology
- 11 (CNB), Madrid, Spain.
- ³Department of Ecosystem Research, Leibniz-Institute of Freshwater Ecology and
- 14 Inland Fisheries (IGB), Berlin, Germany.
- ⁴Berlin Centre for Genomics in BiodiversityResearch (BeGenDiv), Berlin, Germany.
- ⁵Institute of Biology, FreieUniversität Berlin, Berlin, Germany.
- 6 Laboratory of Analysis, Treatment and Valorization of Environmental Polluants and products, Faculty of Pharmacy, University of Monastir, Tunisia.
- ⁷Centro de Micro-Bioinnovación, Escuela de Nutrición y Dietética, Facultad de Farmacia, Universidad de Valparaíso, Valparaíso, Chile.
 - * Corresponding author: a.rojas@fu-berlin.de

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

Abstract Background: In nature, microorganisms have to adapt to long-term stressful conditions often with growth limitations. However, little is known about the evolution of the adaptability of new bacteria to such environments. Pseudomonas aeruginosa, an opportunistic pathogen, after natural evaporation of seawater, was shown to be trapped in laboratory-grown halite crystals and to remain viable after entrapment for years. However, how this bacterium persists and survives in such hypersaline conditions is not understood. **Results:** In this study, we aimed to understand the basis of survival, and to characterise the physiological changes required to develop salt tolerance using P. aeruginosa as a model. Several clones of P. aeruginosa were rescued after fourteen years in naturally evaporated marine salt crystals. Incubation of samples in nutrient-rich broth allowed re-growth and subsequent plating yielded observable colonies. Whole genome sequencing of the P. aeruginosa isolates confirmed the recovery of the original strain. The re-grown strains, however, showed a new phenotype consisting of an enhanced growth in growing salt concentration compared to the ancestor strain. The intracellular accumulation of K⁺ was elicited by high concentration of Na⁺ in the external medium to maintain the homeostasis. Whole transcriptomic analysis by microarray indicated that seventy-eight genes had differential expression between the parental strain and derivative clones. Sixty-one transcripts were up-regulated, while seventeen were down-regulated. Based on a collection of single-gene knockout mutants and gene ontology analysis, we

suggest that the adaptive response in P. aeruginosa to hyper-salinity relies on multiple

gene product interactions.

Conclusions: The individual gene contributions build up the observed phenotype, but do not ease the identification of salinity-related metabolic pathways. The long-term inclusion of *P. aeruginosa* in salt crystals primes the bacteria, mediating a readjustment of the bacterial physiology to growth in higher salt concentrations. Our findings provide a starting point to understand how *P. aeruginosa*, a relevant environmental and pathogenic bacterium, survives to long-term salt stress.

Keywords: *Pseudomonas aeruginosa;* gene expression; salt priming; long-term stress.

Background

In their natural environments, microbes often have to cope with stressful conditions. The limitation of nutrients, intense competition for resources and a variety of abiotic stresses such as radiation, temperature, pH, oxygen-derived radicals, antibiotics and high osmolarity are commonly experienced by bacteria [1].

Reports on the extreme longevity of microbes in salt are controversial [2]. Hypersaline environments have been a significant reservoir for the long-term evolution of specially adapted microorganisms [3]. Additionally, saline environments may aid the survival of microorganisms, protecting them from desiccation by trapping the cells in fluid inclusions, a phenomenon that occurs in salt crystals upon evaporation [4]. Several studies on ancient microbes are consistent with laboratory experiments and studies on other modern surface halite deposits, which suggest that microorganisms persist inside fluid inclusions in halite for many year [5–7].

In a previous study, Pseudomonas aeruginosa cells were shown to get trapped in fluid

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

97

98

99

100

101

102

inclusions pockets of saturated brine in laboratory-grown halite crystals and to remain viable after entrapment [5]. The ability of *P. aeruginosa* to colonise and thrive in myriad environments correlates with its relatively large genome and genetic complexity [8]. An exceedingly high number of assigned open reading frames are transcriptional regulators or members of two-component regulatory systems in comparison to other bacteria [9]. This large proportion of regulatory genes also facilitates P. aeruginosa adaptability and sensing diverse environmental stresses [8-11]. Potassium is the major intracellular cation in bacteria and plays an important role to maintain homeostasis. In osmotic conditions, bacterial cells accumulate K⁺ by a number of different transport systems that vary in kinetics, energy coupling, and regulation [12]. However, despite advances in the understanding of the immediate response to hyperosmotic shock in P. aeruginosa [13], the physiological mechanisms that allow the bacterial persistence in highly saline environments are still poorly understood. Molecular basis of this persistence may be of great interest to both clinical and environmental microbiology. In the present study, we assess the phenotypic and genotypic changes of P. aeruginosa ATCC 27853 after fourteen years of entrapment in seawater salt crystals to characterise the required physiological changes that allow salt tolerance.

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

Results **Evaluation of fitness in different salt conditions** In this work, we study the effects of long-term incubation in extremely salty conditions on P. aeruginosa using microarrays and salt-tolerance assays. After fourteen years of inclusion in evaporated seawater (37 g/l of salts), different clones of P. aeruginosa were recovered and cultivated. The revitalisation of the culture in nutrient broth at 37°C rendered bacterial suspensions that reached an average of OD_{600nm}: 0.9±0.06, after 48 hours of incubation. The ancestor strain (T0 or control) and its derivative 48-hour clones (T48), did not show significant differences in growth rate when cultured with NaCl 8.5 mM (normal concentration of NaCl in DM medium (Table 1). However, the final OD was significantly higher in the recovered T48 strain. This implies a growth advantage in the stationary phase demonstrating the adaptability of the recovered cells to extremes conditions such as starvation. After the long period in salt crystals, supposing the selection of more adapted mutants, we also cultured the bacteria on increasing concentrations of NaCl. The variants T48 showed an improved growth rate at concentrations of 250 or 500 mM (Table 1). At 1M, the ancestor strain was not able to grow, whereas T48 clones reached the highest optical density of all conditions (Figure 1). These first results suggested that derivative T48 clones acquired the ability to thrive in high-salt environments, even at NaCl concentrations that were restrictive for the original strain. However, no significant differences were found when comparing growth rates (r) between T0 and T48 variants at other evaluated NaCl

concentration (Table 1). Moreover, the addition of 100 mM KCI to bacterial cultures of the T0 strain, inhibited by 1M of NaCI, restored the growth of this strain and allowed T48 strain to growth even at 2M NaCI (Figure 2), indicating that growth inhibition not only depends on salt concentration but also on the composition of growth media. The tolerance to NaCI is then influenced by the level of KCI or maybe the ability of the cell to control K⁺ transport. Hence, our expectations were to find the role of K⁺ and Na⁺ transporters or regulators in *P. aeruginosa* to long-term hypertonic conditions. All these observations demonstrate that after incubation of *P. aeruginosa* in seawater crystals for a long period (14 years), the cells adapted and became more tolerant to higher salt concentrations.

Whole genome sequencing after recovery from salt

To characterise possible genomic adaptations to salt in *P. aeruginosa*, we sequenced five independent clones and the reference strain using a whole genome sequencing approach based on the Illumina MiSeq platform. Seven non-synonymous substitutions were found in the sequenced clones. These mutations were present in one aromatic amino acid transporter, prepilin-type N-terminal cleavage/methylation domain-containing protein, FHA domain-containing protein, hybrid sensor histidine kinase/response regulator and two hypothetical proteins. In addition, three SNPs resulting in a synonymous substitution (c.795G>C p.Arg265Arg; c.34T>C p.Leu12Leu and c.54C>T p.Ser18Ser) respectively in DNA polymerase III subunit beta and in two hypothetical proteins were also detected by WGS (Table S1). Three other mutations were identified in intergenic sites. The products of the genes with non-synonymous mutations do not

seem to contribute in salt stress response. Overall, the lack of convergence in the mutations makes difficult to assign any effect to these SNPs. Suggesting that the changes on salt resistance in the studied strain were probably associated with adaptive response based on changes in global gene expression.

Transcriptome profiling of salt-trapped *P. aeruginosa*

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

As the phenotype of T48 clones cannot be easily explained by mutations, differences between T0 and T48 may be due to physiological changes that remain after the recovery from the seawater salt crystals. To investigate the differential gene expression between the wild-type T0 and its salt-tolerant derivate T48, transcriptome analysis by microarrays rendered 78 genes with significant changes in their expression level. From these 78 genes, 25 are genes related to cellular metabolism, 18 are associated to virulence factors, 14 are hypothetical proteins, 11 are associated to transporters and regulatory peptides, 4 are membrane proteins, 4 are implicated in post translational modification and 2 are chaperones and heat shock proteins (Table 2). A global view of all differentially expressed genes is presented in the MA plot in the Figure S1. From the 25 genes encoding enzymes or proteins implicated in the cellular metabolism which are differentially expressed between T0 and T48, 20 genes are up-regulated and five are down-regulated. When the 18 genes associated with expression of virulence factors are analysed, all Type III Secretion System (T3SS) proteins and two cytotoxin secretion factor exoenzymes, ExoS (PA3841) and ExoT (PA0044) are up-regulated (Table 2). A remarkable increase of the expression of H⁺ transport T3SS ATPase (pscN) - PA1697) was also observed in T48 strains. Interestingly, its product can be

responsible for Na⁺ extrusion in *P. aeruginosa*. A substantial homeostatic capacity is necessary for adaptation and tolerance to a change in the external environment. There are eight genes encoding transporters that were up-regulated in T48. Except for the genes related to the symport of Na⁺/Alanine/Glycine (PA2252), transport of sulphate (cvsW-PA0281 and cvsT-PA0282), and the C5-dicarboxylate transport (PA5530), all transporters are putative components of ABC transporters (PA2204, PA3019), and putative amino acid permeases (PA3641, PA0789). Additionally, three genes (a probable AGCS Na⁺/alanine/glycine symporter – PA2252, a probable amino acid permease – PA3641, and *ngrB* – PA2998) involved in Na⁺ ions transport (GO:0006814) were induced in the T48 variants (fold change 3.10, 2.42 and 2.11 respectively; Table S1 and S2). There is also a set of genes (14 in total) coding for unknown functions that are differentially regulated, half of them are up-regulated and the rest down-regulated (Table 2). Interestingly, when these results are linked to the genome sequence analysis, none of the differentially regulated hypothetical proteins had mutations in the ORF or the promoter. One of these up-regulated hypothetical proteins is yijT (PA4627), which product could be a putative rRNA (Guanin-N2)-methyltransferase (GO:0008990) according to the Gene Ontology analysis.

Gene Ontology Analysis

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

188

189

190

191

192

193

194

A global analysis of the differentially regulated genes by Gene Ontology (GO) was performed. Such analysis revealed that the majority of the proteins are grouped according to the "catalytic activity" and "binding" biological functions (Figure 4A, Table

S3). When analysed the cellular component category of the GOs, "cell part" which comprises the "plasma membrane" and "intracellular" categories and "macromolecular complex" represent the two groups (Figure 4B). Additionally, the regulated genes could be involved in two biological processes: "metabolic process" and "cellular process" (Figure 4C). When analysed, the product genes' functions, "transferases", "oxidoreductases", "hydrolases", and "lyases" are the most abundant protein functions (Figure 4D). Stressed bacteria followed a complex adaptive response that involves different biological processes such as the regulation of oxidation-reduction process, regulation of cell shape, transmembrane transport systems and cell redox homeostasis.

Salt tolerance assay of *P. aeruginosa* mutants

The detection of a large number of genes differentially regulated in the T48 variant (Table 2) confirmed the hypothesis that high salt resistance in T48 is linked to many genes that participate together in the adaptive response of *P. aeruginosa*. However, it is difficult to determine the individual contribution of each gene in the adaptation to hypersalinity. For this reason, to investigate the individual contribution of each one of the differentially regulated genes in the T48 variant, we decided to explore their available mutants in the *P. aeruginosa* PA14 transposon insertion library [21]. From 78 differentially regulated genes, mutants for 39 genes could be recovered from the library (Table S2). These individual knock-out mutants were tested for growth at different NaCl concentrations. Our results indicated that only mutants in *ccoO2* (cytochrome *c* oxidase subunit), PA4517 (conserved hypothetical protein), *dnaK* (chaperone), and *hslU* (ATP-dependent

protease) showed a significant difference with the wild type when grown in 8.5 and 500 mM NaCl (Figure3). Some mutants (in PA1556, PA4517 and PA4761) grew worse than the parental strain in low salt concentration (8.5 mM NaCl), while all they did grow better in high salinity medium (500 mM).

Discussion

218

219

220

221

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

The results of this study show that P. aeruginosa can survive and adapt to prolonged extreme stress conditions. The obtained data suggest that the differential response to salt stress between T0 and T48 variants is not linked to specific mutational events. This in line with previous finding with these clones recovered from salt, where has been shown that after several passages, bacteria recover their normal phenotype [14]. However, we cannot discard that some of the detected mutations could play a role in the observed phenotypes. Genetic manipulation of P. aeruginosa at single nucleotide level is nowadays still a challenge. The gene expression analysis revealed that many genes are differentially regulated in the stressed cells. The differential induction of membrane transporters may reflect altered ion fluxes between the bacterial cell and the surrounding medium to maintain homoeostasis. In fact, the primary response of bacteria to a highly osmotic environment is the accumulation of certain solutes, like K⁺, glutamate, trehalose, proline, and glycine betaine, at concentrations that are proportional to the osmolarity of the medium [15]. When bacteria face a growing concentration of Na⁺, they actively transport K⁺ ions [15]. A recent study demonstrated that a steady K⁺ supply, even under unfavourable energetic conditions, plays a key role in long-term survival and desiccation tolerance for

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

252

253

254

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

Halobacteriumsalinarum within salt crystal [16]. This is consistent with the fact that Na⁺/ K⁺ transporters were slightly induced in the T48 variant, including, the glutathioneregulated K⁺-efflux system protein KefB (PA1207; 1.5-fold regulation) and a putative K⁺ channel (PA1496; 1.52-fold regulation). K⁺ transporters are regulated by an increase in environment osmolarity regardless of the solute used and turgor. This response is modulated by the external concentrations of Na⁺. The K⁺ ions act as a cytoplasmicsignaling molecule, activating and/or inducing enzymes and transport systems that allow the cell to adapt to elevated salinity [12, 15]. Additionally, three genes involved in Na⁺ ion transport (GO:0006814) were induced in the T48 variants (PA2252, PA3641 ngrB - PA2998; fold change 3.10, 2.42 and 2.11 respectively; Tables S1 and S2). The product of ngrB gene is a unique energytransducing complex, widely distributed among marine and pathogenic bacteria. It converts the energy from the oxidation of NADH and the reduction of quinone into an electrochemical Na⁺-gradient that can provide energy to the cell [17]. In addition, it allows the Na⁺ ion to pass through the hydrophobic core of the membrane and provides cation specificity to the translocation system [18]. These results are complementary with the 6 up-regulated and 13 down-regulated transporters (Table 2). From these 6 upregulated transporters, rnfC (PA3491) is related with the electron transport complex, which is overexpressed when IscR is up-regulated [19]. In contrast, rnfE (PA3494), the putative periplasmic component of the RNF system [20], is underexpressed in T48 variants, a contradiction as the RNF system is very close to the Na⁺-pumping NADH: ubiquinone oxidoreductase [20, 21]. Another important up-regulated transporter is czcB (PA2521), which is associated with resistance to heavy metals [22-24], but

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

recently it was discovered that it is also responsible for Ca²⁺ ions homeostasis [25]. Other up-regulated transporters are *narK1* (PA3877; related with the nitrate respiration under anaerobic conditions [25, 26]), ompl (PA3894; related to the aminoglycoside resistance [27]), and two more probable transporters with unknown associated metabolites (PA1876, *yhiH* – PA5231). Despite the fact that the gene coding for Ompl is up-regulated in T48 (Table 2), MexCD (PA4598 and PA4599) transporters, which are related to fluoroquinolones resistance [81, 82], are down-regulated. Similarly, LptG (PA3827), a lipopolysaccharide export system permease, is also down-regulated. Regarding transporters related to carbohydrate transport, RbsA (PA1947) and YhhS (PA1993) are also down-regulated. Finally, the rest of the down-regulated transporters are putative MFS and ABC type transporters of unknown metabolites, except for a putative K⁺ channel (PA1496) and YdfC (PA2777), a putative formic/nitrite transporter which was also found to be expressed under antibiotic stress [28, 29]. Four members of the 8-gene operon iscR-PA3808 the ferredoxin Fdx2 (PA3809), the co-chaperone HscB (PA3811), the L-cysteine desulfuraselscS (PA3814), and the ironsulphur cluster assembly transcription factor IscR (PA3815) are up-regulated, supporting previous observations about their expression in high concentration of salts [19]. Surprisingly, we did not find any significant up-regulation of the IscR-regulated ferredoxin FprB (PA4615), which are also associated with salt stress [30]. Other upregulated genes are implicated in post-translational modifications such as trmD (PA3743; tRNA guanosine methyltransferase) and endA (PA2749; DNA-specific endonuclease I). Methylation of coding or non-coding RNA might play an important role in gene expression regulation [31]. Moreover, the S-adenosylmethionine decarboxylase

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

298

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

proenzyme (speD; PA0654), involved in spermidine biosynthesis, was up-regulated in the T48 variants. Interestingly, previous works reported that spermidine is effective in alleviating the adverse effect of salt stress on plants [32, 33]. A recent finding indicated that spermidine priming treatments enhanced the antioxidant systems in plants exposed to salt stress and contributed to improved ion homeostasis [32-34]. Similarly, in P. aeruginosa, Johnson et al [34] reported that spermidine plays an important function as an organic polycation to bind lipopolysaccharide and to stabilize the cell surface. It protects the outer membrane from aminoglycoside antibiotics, antimicrobial peptides, and oxidative stress. Another up-regulated gene coding for a two-component system response regulator PmrA (PA4776), was identified in this study, which was recently reported to be associated with polymyxin resistance and hence osmotic stress [35]. The rsmA gene, known to be a regulator of the secondary metabolism and a carbon storage regulator, is down-regulated in salt-tolerant clones (Table 2). RsmA was found to play a very important role in early pathogenesis, especially in early colonisation and dissemination [36], due to its relevance in the expression of Type VI Secretory System (T6SS) [37, 38]. Moreover, rsmA-knockouts strains of P. aeruginosa have altered the expression of genes involved in a wide variety of pathways, including iron acquisition, formation of multidrug efflux pumps and motility [39]. The genes coding for TssK1 (PA0079) and IcmF2 (PA1669) are also down-regulated. Both proteins are fundamental for the pathogenesis of P. aeruginosa, as the former is implied in the assembly of T6SS complex [40] while the latter is involved in the virulence [41]. Most of these T3SS proteins are members of the 12-gene operon popN-popD, which

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

319

320

321

322

323

324

325

326

327

328

329

330

331

332

are expressed not only in pathogenesis but also under different environmental stresses such as low concentration of Ca²⁺ or direct contact with host cells [42]. Additionally, ExoS and ExoT have an ADP-ribosyltransferase activity, playing an important role in the bacterial survival and dissemination in clinical strains [43, 44, 45]. Salt stress also showed impact on three metabolic genes that were up-regulated: the cytochrome c oxidase (coxA; PA0106), a putative acyl-CoA dehydrogenase (PA0508), and the anthranilate-coenzyme A ligase (pgsA; PA0996). Previously, the putative acyl-CoA dehydrogenase, a gene associated with changes in membrane fluidity [46], was found overexpressed in Burkholderia pseudomallei when treated with NaCl. The fact that pqsA is up-regulated may indicate that the Pseudomonas quinolone signal (PQS) could be also overexpressed during salt encapsulation. This protein shapes bacterial population structure to survive under stressful environments and kills sensitive bacteria at a time that promotes anti-oxidative stress response [47]. When transcriptional regulators are analysed, only a putative transcriptional regulator (PA0547) is up-regulated in T48, having a potential role in the differential regulation of gene expression. However, hslU (PA5054) and dnaK (PA4761) genes, which encode for chaperone activity are found significantly down-regulated. This observation is in contrast with previous studies, where dnaK was overexpressed, being relevant in salt resistance in Lactococcuslactis [48]. Moreover, dnaK was also found up-regulated in marine bacteria allowing the adaptation to cold environments [49]. Possibly, these chaperones were up-regulated in salt-trapped bacteria but, once the T48 variant was recovered, these genes are quickly down-regulated due to other salt stress adaptations, the same maybe true for other genes.

334

335

336

337

338

339

340

341

342

343

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

CgrA (PA2127), which is found to be related to the expression of RsmN and, thus, the repression of RsmA [38], is up-regulated in T48 variant. The cgrA gene plays a key role in the expression of fimbrial genes and is related to MvaT mutants or anaerobic growth [50]. Despite the fact that only narK1 (PA3877) was found to be up-regulated, results indicate that most of the up-regulated genes in T48 are associated to aerobic growth. Additionally, no mutations in the MvaT transcriptional regulator were revealed by whole genome analysis. According to our results, salt resistance could be considered as a priming response, i.e. as a physiological process by which organisms prepare themselves for more quick or aggressive situations to future biotic or abiotic stress [51]. Although this phenomenon has been studied mostly in plants, there are also some examples of priming in the bacterial world. One critical issue is to explore how the signals that induce priming are received and transduced by the cells and prepare the bacteria for long-term persistence if growth is not possible. In plants, priming to salinity plays an important role as adaptive phenotypic strategy [52]. This process could develop different defence mechanisms in the cells against salinity stress such as antioxidant defence systems, the repair of membranes and the osmotic adjustment [53]. This kind of response is characterised, essentially, by the slow induction of many genes that together contribute to the acquisition of quick and effective adaptive strategy against stressor conditions. In such cases, molecular mechanisms responsible for priming effects are involved in the accumulation of signalling proteins or transcription factors [54], as well as epigenetic mechanisms [55, 56]. These epigenetic mechanisms are thought to bring a faster and more potent response to subsequent exposure to stress. This idea is supported for the

Gene Ontology analysis, which suggested that some genes were involved in regulation of transcription, methylation process, response to stimulus, RNA metabolic processes and quorum sensing.

Interestingly, neither the mutants nor the wild-type were able to grow in DM with 1 M NaCl. All these genes showed a decreased transcription in the T48 variant and, consequently, if they are involved in adaptation to hypersalinity, a better growth under high NaCl concentration is expected when inactivated. Moreover, no sequence changes between the five genes from T0 and T48 were found, suggesting that the differences in growth under high salt conditions may be due to differential regulation, which requires further research to be clarified. The preservation of a long-lasting phenotype is not new in bacteria. For instance, the lactose metabolization response in *Escherichia coli* is maintained during more than ten generations after the removal of lactose due to the inheritance of very stable proteins [57].

Conclusions

Pseudomonas aeruginosa can survive in inclusions of seawater crystals for many years. Upon recovery, this bacterium shows a better ability to grow in highly saline conditions, and the adaptation seems to be only phenotypic but not genetic, indicating a 'priming' phenomenon in this plastic bacterium. Although we have identified several genes potentially involved in adaptation to saline environments, the exact mechanisms which are responsible for priming in *P. aeruginosa* remain unclear. Our study provides a good start toward a deep understanding of the long-term salt stress behaviour of *P. aeruginosa*.

381

396

397

398

399

400

382 383 **Methods** 384 Bacterial model and growth conditions. P. aeruginosa ATCC 27853 (wild-type: T0 in 385 386 this study) was grown overnight at 37°C in nutrient broth, centrifuged at 13,000 rpm for 387 10 min, washed three times and then suspended in filtered sterilise seawater to a final concentration of approximately 10⁹ CFU/ml in three independent replicas. Cells were 388 389 incubated during fourteen years in closed Erlenmeyer flasks at room temperature. The concentration of salts in the used seawater was 37 g/l. The water was allowed to 390 391 evaporate, the saline crystals were apparent after eight months, and the culture became 392 completely desiccated after ten months. The initial number of CFU/ml was confirmed by 393 serial decimal dilutions in nutrient agar. 394 Revitalisation of the bacterial cells. P. aeruginosa cells, maintained during fourteen 395

years in sterilised seawater, were revitalised by the addition of 100 ml of sterilised

nutrient broth to the salt crystal in the Erlenmeyer flask and incubated at 37°C with 100

rpm of shaking. Subsequent plating of an aliquot from this culture on nutrient agar

yielded observable colonies. A few isolated colonies from the different replicas were

recovered and saved for further analysis. Biochemical profiles of P. aeruginosa ATCC

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

423

27853 and the resuscitated cells (T48 variant in this study) were characterised using API 20NE system (bio-Merieux, France). Evaluation of fitness in different salinity conditions. Bacterial growth curves were carried out in flat-bottomed 96-well microplates (Nunc, Denmark). Each well was filled with 100 µl of Davis Minimal medium (DM: Na2HPO4 6.78g/l; KH2PO4 3g/l; NaCl 0.5g/l; NH4Cl 1g/l; 1 mM MgSO4; 0.1 mM CaCl2, 0.28% Glucose and 0.25% casamino acids), supplemented with NaCl to final concentrations of 2M, 1M, 500mM, 250mM and 8.5mM. Overnight cultures of T0 and T48 P. aeruginosa cells were added to a final OD595 of 0.04. The growth of T0 and T48 variants was followed with four replicas of each one in the same concentrations of NaCl. Microplates were incubated in an Infinite F200 TECAN microplate reader for 24 hours at 37°C with 15s of shaking duration, 3mm of shaking amplitude. The interval time of absorbance measurements at 595nm was 15min. The same manipulation was repeated adding 100mM KCl to selected concentrations of NaCl. Whole genome sequencing after recovery from salt. Libraries were prepared using a TruSeq DNA PCR-Free Library Preparation Kit (Illumina, USA) and were sequenced on anIllumina-MiSeq system using a 600-cycle v3 reagent kit, resulting in 300-bp pairedend reads. Sequence data are available from the NCBI database under Bioproject accession PRJNA420955. A reference genome for strain P. aeruginosa ATCC 27853 was assembled using A5-miseg version 20140604 and annotated using prokka version 1.12-beta [59]. Snippy version 3.2 [60] was used to

identify variants in strains c1-5 (clone1 to clone5) relative to the reference complete genome of *P. aeruginosa* ATCC 27853 (Genbank accession CP015117). Assembly of 1,818,724 error-corrected reads (estimated 47.68-fold coverage) resulted in 46 contigs with an N50 of 353 kb and a total size of 6.79 Mb.

424

425

426

427

428

429

430

431

432

433

434

435

436

437

438

439

440

441

442

443

444

445

446

447

448

Transcriptome profiling of salt-trapped P. aeruginosa. To find out what genes are involved in the differential salinity resistance, global transcription profile of cultures of P. aeruginosa T0 and its derivative T48 variant were carried out using microarray technology. Bacterial cells were grown overnight in Davis minimal medium (DM) at 37°C under 200 rpm of shaking. Three independent 1/50 dilutions of each of them were grown until they reached an optical density of 0.5 at 600 nm. The cells were washed and resuspended in DM supplemented with RNA protect reagent (Qiagen, Germany). Cell lysis and total RNA extractions were performed with the RNeasy mini kit according to the manufacturer's recommendations (Qiagen, Chatsworth, CA), except that 1 mg/ml of lysozyme was used to lyse Pseudomonas cells. DNase digestions were carried out on the column by adding 82 units of Kunitz enzyme (Qiagen) with incubation at room temperature for 15 min. An additional DNase digestion was performed on the purified RNA to ensure the absence of DNA. RNA quality was checked through agarose electrophoresis before cDNA synthesis. Fluorescently labelled cDNA for microarray hybridisation was obtained by using the SuperScript Indirect cDNA Labelling System (Invitrogen) as recommended by the supplier. Briefly, 20 µg of total RNA was transformed to cDNA with Superscript III reverse transcriptase using random hexamers as primers and including aminoalyl-modified nucleotides in the reaction mixture. After cDNA purification, Cy3 or Cy5 fluorescent dye (Amersham Biosciences) was coupled to the

450

451

452

453

454

455

456

457

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

465

466

467

468

469

470

471

472

473

amino-modified first-strand cDNA. The labelling efficiency was assessed by using a NanoDrop ND1000 spectrophotometer (NanoDrop Technologies). Equal amounts of Cy3- or Cy5-labelled cDNAs, one of them corresponding to the control and the other to the problem under analysis, were mixed and dried in a Speed-Vac, Labelled cDNA was hybridised to P. aeruginosa microarray slides version 2 from the Pathogen Functional Genomics Resource Center from J. Craig Venter Institute Microbial Hybridization of Labelled Probes protocol. Following hybridization, the slides were washed, dried, and scanned using a ScanArray Express scanner and software (Packard BioScienceBioChip Technologies). For the analysis of DNA microarray slides, background correction and normalization of expression data were performed using LIMMA [61]. To avoid the exaggerated variability of log ratios for low-intensity spots during local background correction, we used the *normexp* method in LIMMA to adjust the local median background estimates. The resulting log ratios were printtip LOESS normalised for each array [62]. Only genes that exhibited changes compared to the wild-type control of two-fold and more, as well as P values of ≤0.05, were considered in the study. Finally, to explore the functional roles of the regulated genes, the Gene Ontology (GO) analysis was performed through the PANTHER online software [63] and QuickGO tool [64]. Salt tolerance assay of *P. aeruginosa* mutants. The desired mutants were isolated from PA14 transposon insertion mutants [65]. The selected P. aeruginosa PA14 mutants, with deletions in genes showing transcriptional variation in the microarray experiments, were used. Salt tolerance of these mutants was measured and compared to the wild-type strain PA14. The salt tolerance assay was performed on 96-well polystyrene plates. Each well was filled with 100 µl of DM minimal medium supplemented with NaCl to final concentrations of 8.5 mM (DM with no NaCl added),

250 mM and 500 mM, with four replicas for each NaCl concentration. The microplates were incubated at 37°C, and the optical density at 600 nm was measured after 24 hours. For mutants showing statistically significant differences in growth respect the wild-type strain on NaCl (>25%), salt tolerance assay was repeated for each sodium chloride concentration.

Statistical analysis. All parameters for the growth curves were estimated using Growthcurver [66]. Using this data, all model parameters —carrying capacity, initial population size, growth rate, doubling time and the empirical area under the curve—for all growth curves of both variants, T0 and T48, were compared using Student's *t* test according to the different NaCl and KCl concentrations. Additionally, two-sided Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests were applied to compare the growth curves per treatments. *P* values less than or equal to 0.05 were considered statistically significant. All statistical tests were performed in R v. 3.4.4 [67].

Acknowledgements

- We are grateful to Prof. Jens Rolff for support and helpful comments from Yeliz Karatas,
- 491 Arpita Nath from Freie Universität Berlin and Dr Paul Smith.

Funding

This work was supported by Grants PI10/00105 and REIPI RD06/0008, both from Ministerio de Ciencia e Innovación, Instituto de Salud Carlos III, the last co-financed by European Development Regional Fund "A way to achieve Europe" ERDF, Spanish Network for Research in Infectious Diseases (REIPI RD06/0008) and by the PAR project (Ref 241476) from the EU 7th Framework Programme. ARR was also supported SFB 973 (Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft, project C5).

Availability of data and materials All data are available in the manuscript and supplementary material. The sequences and genomic data were deposited as indicated in the manuscript. **Authors' contributions** EH, EGT, CIQ, AB, KG and ARR carried out the experimental work. ARR and JB designed the experimental work. PJ contributed with genome sequencing and analysis. All authors conducted analytical work. EH and ARR drafted the manuscript with input from all authors. All authors read and approved the final manuscript. Ethics approval and consent to participate Not applicable. **Consent for publication** Not applicable. **Competing interests** Authors declare that they have no competing interests.

532 533 534 535 536 537 538 539 540 References 1. Hengge-Aronis R. The general stress response in Escherichia coli. In: Hengge-Aronis 541 542 GS and R, editor. Bacterial Stress Responses. Washington, D.C.: ASM Press,; 2000. p. 161–78. 543 2. Lowenstein TK, Schubert BA, Timofeeff MN. Microbial communities in fluid inclusions 544 545 and long-term survival in halite. GSA Today. 2011;21:4–9. doi:10.1130/GSATG81A.1. 3. McGenity TJ, Gemmell RT, Grant WD, Stan-Lotter H. Origins of halophilic 546 microorganisms in ancient salt deposits. Minireview. Environ Microbiol. 2000;2:243–50. 547 548 doi:10.1046/j.1462-2920.2000.00105.x. 549 Norton CF, Grant WD. Survival of Halobacteria Within Fluid Inclusions in Salt 550 Crystals. J Gen Microbiol. 1988;134:1365–1. 551 5. Adamski JC, Roberts JA, Goldstein RH. Entrapment of Bacteria in Fluid Inclusions in Laboratory-Grown Halite. Astrobiology. 2006;6:552–62. doi:10.1089/ast.2006.6.552. 552 553 6. Fendrihan S, Legat A, Pfaffenhuemer M, Gruber C, Weidler G, Gerbl F, et al. 554 Extremely halophilic archaea and the issue of long-term microbial survival. Re/views

- 555 Environ Sci bio/technology. 2006;5:203–18. doi:10.1007/s11157-006-0007-y.
- 556 7. Schubert BA, Lowenstein TK, Timofeeff MN, Parker MA. Halophilic Archaea cultured
- from ancient halite, Death Valley, California. Environ Microbiol. 2010;12:440–54.
- 558 doi:10.1111/j.1462-2920.2009.02086.x.
- 8. Stover CK, Pham XQ, Erwin AL, Mizoguchi SD, Warrener P, Hickey MJ, et al.
- 560 Complete genome sequence of Pseudomonas aeruginosa PAO1, an opportunistic
- 561 pathogen. Nature. 2000;406:959–64. doi:10.1038/35023079.
- 9. Rodrigue A, Quentin Y, Lazdunski A, Méjean V, Foglino M. Cell signalling by
- oligosaccharides. Two-component systems in Pseudomonas aeruginosa: why so
- 564 many? Trends Microbiol. 2000;8:498–504.
- 10. Langton Hewer SC, Smyth AR. Antibiotic strategies for eradicating Pseudomonas
- aeruginosa in people with cystic fibrosis. Cochrane Database Syst Rev.
- 567 2017;4:CD004197.
- 568 11. Snitkin ES, Segre JA. Pseudomonas aeruginosa adaptation to human hosts. Nat
- 569 Genet. 2015;47:2–3. doi:10.1038/ng.3172.
- 12. Epstein W. The roles and regulation of potassium in bacteria. Prog Nucleic Acid Res
- 571 Mol Biol. 2003;75:293–320. http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/14604015. Accessed 4
- 572 May 2018.
- 13. Aspedon A, Palmer K, Whiteley M. Microarray analysis of the osmotic stress
- 574 response in Pseudomonas aeruginosa. J Bacteriol. 2006;188:2721–5. doi:188/7/2721
- 575 [pii] 10.1128/JB.188.7.2721-2725.2006.
- 576 14. Romsang A, Duang-Nkern J, Leesukon P, Saninjuk K, Vattanaviboon P,
- 577 Mongkolsuk S. The Iron-Sulphur Cluster Biosynthesis Regulator IscR Contributes to

- 578 Iron Homeostasis and Resistance to Oxidants in Pseudomonas aeruginosa. PLoS One.
- 579 2014;9:e86763.
- 15. Csonka LN. Physiological and genetic responses of bacteria to osmotic stress.
- 581 Microbiol Rev. 1989;53:121–47. http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/2651863.
- 582 Accessed 4 May 2018.
- 16. Kixmüller D, Greie J-C. An ATP-driven potassium pump promotes long-term survival
- of Halobacterium salinarum within salt crystals. Environ Microbiol Rep. 2012;4:234–41.
- 585 doi:10.1111/j.1758-2229.2012.00326.x.
- 586 17. Juárez O, Barquera B. Insights into the mechanism of electron transfer and sodium
- 587 translocation of the Na(+)-pumping NADH:quinone oxidoreductase. Biochim Biophys
- 588 Acta. 2012;1817:1823–32. doi:10.1016/j.bbabio.2012.03.017.
- 18. Juárez O, Athearn K, Gillespie P, Barguera B. Acid residues in the transmembrane
- 590 helices of the Na+-pumping NADH:quinone oxidoreductase from Vibrio cholerae
- 591 involved in sodium translocation. Biochemistry. 2009;48:9516–24.
- 592 doi:10.1021/bi900845y.
- 19. Romsang A, Duang-Nkern J, Wirathorn W, Vattanaviboon P, Mongkolsuk S.
- 594 Pseudomonas aeruginosa IscR-Regulated Ferredoxin NADP(+) Reductase Gene (fprB)
- 595 Functions in Iron-Sulfur Cluster Biogenesis and Multiple Stress Response. PLoS One.
- 596 2015;10:e0134374.
- 597 20. Hreha TN, Mezic KG, Herce HD, Duffy EB, Bourges A, Pryshchep S, et al.
- 598 Complete topology of the RNF complex from Vibrio cholerae. Biochemistry.
- 599 2015;54:2443–55.
- 600 21. Reyes-Prieto A, Barquera B, Juárez O. Origin and Evolution of the Sodium -

- Pumping NADH: Ubiquinone Oxidoreductase. PLoS One. 2014;9:e96696.
- 602 22. Li K, Pidatala RR, Ramakrishna W. Mutational, proteomic and metabolomic analysis
- of a plant growth promoting copper-resistant *Pseudomonas* spp. FEMS Microbiol Lett.
- 604 2012;335:140–8.
- 605 23. Jain S. Bhatt A. Molecular and in situ characterization of cadmium-resistant
- 606 diversified extremophilic strains of Pseudomonas for their bioremediation potential. 3
- 607 Biotech. 2014;4:297–304.
- 608 24. Chong TM, Yin W-F, Chen J-W, Mondy S, Grandclément C, Faure D, et al.
- 609 Comprehensive genomic and phenotypic metal resistance profile of Pseudomonas
- 610 putida strain S13.1.2 isolated from a vineyard soil. AMB Express. 2016;6:95.
- 611 25. Khanam S, Guragain M, Lenaburg DL, Kubat R, Patrauchan MA. Calcium induces
- tobramycin resistance in Pseudomonas aeruginosa by regulating RND efflux pumps.
- 613 Cell Calcium. 2017;61:32–43.
- 614 26. Sharma V, Noriega CE, Rowe JJ. Involvement of NarK1 and NarK2 Proteins in
- 615 Transport of Nitrate and Nitrite in the Denitrifying Bacterium Pseudomonas aeruginosa
- 616 PAO1. Appl Environ Microbiol. 2006;72:695–701.
- 617 27. Jo JTH, Brinkman FSL, Hancock REW. Aminoglycoside efflux in Pseudomonas
- 618 aeruginosa: involvement of novel outer membrane proteins. Antimicrob Agents
- 619 Chemother. 2003;47:1101–11.
- 620 28. Skindersoe ME, Alhede M, Phipps R, Yang L, Jensen PO, Rasmussen TB, et al.
- 621 Effects of antibiotics on quorum sensing in Pseudomonas aeruginosa. Antimicrob
- 622 Agents Chemother. 2008;52:3648–63.
- 623 29. Zhu Y, Czauderna T, Zhao J, Klapperstueck M, Maifiah MHM, Han M-L, et al.

- 624 Genome-scale metabolic modeling of responses to polymyxins in Pseudomonas
- 625 aeruginosa. Gigascience. 2018;7.
- 626 30. Roundtree IA, Evans ME, Pan T, He C. Dynamic RNA Modifications in Gene
- 627 Expression Regulation. Cell. 2017;169:1187–200. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2017.05.045.
- 628 31. Li S, Jin H, Zhang Q. The Effect of Exogenous Spermidine Concentration on
- 629 Polyamine Metabolism and Salt Tolerance in Zoysiagrass (Zoysia japonica Steud)
- 630 Subjected to Short-Term Salinity Stress. Front Plant Sci. 2016;7:1221.
- 631 doi:10.3389/fpls.2016.01221.
- 632 32. Liu HP, Dong BH, Zhang YY, Liu ZP, Liu YL. Relationship between osmotic stress
- 633 and the levels of free, conjugated and bound polyamines in leaves of wheat seedlings.
- 634 Plant Sci. 2004;166:1261–7. doi:10.1016/J.PLANTSCI.2003.12.039.
- 635 33. Li J, Hu L, Zhang L, Pan X, Hu X. Exogenous spermidine is enhancing tomato
- 636 tolerance to salinity–alkalinity stress by regulating chloroplast antioxidant system and
- 637 chlorophyll metabolism. BMC Plant Biol. 2015;15:303. doi:10.1186/s12870-015-0699-7.
- 638 34. Johnson L, Mulcahy H, Kanevets U, Shi Y, Lewenza S. Surface-Localized
- 639 Spermidine Protects the Pseudomonas aeruginosa Outer Membrane from Antibiotic
- 640 Treatment and Oxidative Stress. J Bacteriol. 2012;194:813–26. doi:10.1128/JB.05230-
- 641 11.
- 642 35. Lou Y-C, Weng T-H, Li Y-C, Kao Y-F, Lin W-F, Peng H-L, et al. Structure and
- 643 dynamics of polymyxin-resistance-associated response regulator PmrA in complex with
- 644 promoter DNA. Nat Commun. 2015;6:8838.
- 645 36. Mulcahy H, O'Callaghan J, O'Grady EP, Maciá MD, Borrell N, Gómez C, et al.
- 646 Pseudomonas aeruginosa RsmA plays an important role during murine infection by

- 647 influencing colonization, virulence, persistence, and pulmonary inflammation. Infect
- 648 Immun. 2008;76:632–8.
- 649 37. Allsopp LP, Wood TE, Howard SA, Maggiorelli F, Nolan LM, Wettstadt S, et al.
- RsmA and AmrZ orchestrate the assembly of all three type VI secretion systems in
- Pseudomonas aeruginosa. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2017;114:7707–12.
- 652 38. Romero M, Silistre H, Lovelock L, Wright VJ, Chan K-G, Hong K-W, et al. Genome-
- wide mapping of the RNA targets of the Pseudomonas aeruginosa riboregulatory
- 654 protein RsmN. Nucleic Acids Res. 2018.
- 39. Burrowes E, Baysse C, Adams C, O'Gara F. Influence of the regulatory protein
- 656 RsmA on cellular functions in Pseudomonas aeruginosa PAO1, as revealed by
- transcriptome analysis. Microbiology. 2006;152:405–18.
- 40. Zoued A, Durand E, Bebeacua C, Brunet YR, Douzi B, Cambillau C, et al. TssK is a
- 659 trimeric cytoplasmic protein interacting with components of both phage-like and
- 660 membrane anchoring complexes of the type VI secretion system. J Biol Chem.
- 661 2013;288:27031–41.
- 41. Lin J, Cheng J, Chen K, Guo C, Zhang W, Yang X, et al. The icmF3 locus is
- 663 involved in multiple adaptation- and virulence-related characteristics in Pseudomonas
- aeruginosa PAO1. Front Cell Infect Microbiol. 2015;5:70.
- 665 42. Yang H, Shan Z, Kim J, Wu W, Lian W, Zeng L, et al. Regulatory role of PopN and
- 666 its interacting partners in type III secretion of Pseudomonas aeruginosa. J Bacteriol.
- 667 2007;189:2599–609.
- 668 43. Sun Y, Karmakar M, Taylor PR, Rietsch A, Pearlman E. ExoS and ExoT ADP
- 669 ribosyltransferase activities mediate Pseudomonas aeruginosa keratitis by promoting

- 670 neutrophil apoptosis and bacterial survival. J Immunol. 2012;188:1884–95.
- 671 44. Rangel SM, Diaz MH, Knoten CA, Zhang A, Hauser AR. The Role of ExoS in
- 672 Dissemination of Pseudomonas aeruginosa during Pneumonia. PLOS Pathog.
- 673 2015;11:e1004945.
- 45. Li K, Xu C, Jin Y, Sun Z, Liu C, Shi J, et al. SuhB is a regulator of multiple virulence
- genes and essential for pathogenesis of Pseudomonas aeruginosa. MBio.
- 676 2013;4:e00419-13.
- 46. Pumirat P, Cuccui J, Stabler RA, Stevens JM, Muangsombut V, Singsuksawat E, et
- al. Global transcriptional profiling of Burkholderia pseudomallei under salt stress reveals
- differential effects on the Bsa type III secretion system. BMC Microbiol. 2010;10:171.
- 47. Häussler S, Becker T. The Pseudomonas Quinolone Signal (PQS) Balances Life
- and Death in Pseudomonas aeruginosa Populations. PLoS Pathog. 2008;4:e1000166.
- 682 doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1000166.
- 48. Sévin DC, Stählin JN, Pollak GR, Kuehne A, Sauer U. Global Metabolic Responses
- to Salt Stress in Fifteen Species. PLoS One. 2016;11:e0148888.
- 685 49. Kilstrup M, Jacobsen S, Hammer K, Vogensen FK. Induction of heat shock proteins
- DnaK, GroEL, and GroES by salt stress in Lactococcus lactis. Appl Environ Microbiol.
- 687 1997;63:1826–37.
- 688 50. García-Descalzo L, Alcazar A, Baquero F, Cid C. Identification of in vivo HSP90-
- 689 interacting proteins reveals modularity of HSP90 complexes is dependent on the
- 690 environment in psychrophilic bacteria. Cell Stress Chaperones. 2011;16:203–18.
- 691 51. Vallet-Gely I, Sharp JS, Dove SL. Local and global regulators linking anaerobiosis to
- 692 cupA fimbrial gene expression in Pseudomonas aeruginosa. J Bacteriol.

693 2007;189:8667–76.

702

- 694 52. Hilker M, Schwachtje J, Baier M, Balazadeh S, Bäurle I, Geiselhardt S, et al.
- 695 Priming and memory of stress responses in organisms lacking a nervous system. Biol
- 696 Rev Camb Philos Soc. 2015. doi:10.1111/brv.12215.
- 697 53. Molassiotis A, Tanou G, Diamantidis G. NO says more than "YES" to salt tolerance:
- 698 Salt priming and systemic nitric oxide signaling in plants. Plant Signal Behav.
- 699 2010;5:209–12. http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20061805. Accessed 26 Jun 2018.
- 700 54. Ibrahim EA. Seed priming to alleviate salinity stress in germinating seeds. J Plant
- 701 Physiol. 2016;192:38–46. doi:10.1016/j.jplph.2015.12.011.







