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1	Genomic and phenotypic comparison of environmental and patient-derived isolates of
2	Pseudomonas aeruginosa suggest that antimicrobial resistance is rare within the
3	environment
4	Kay A Ramsay ^{1*} , Samuel J T Wardell ¹ , Wayne M Patrick ² , Ben Brockway ³ , David W Reid ^{4,5} ,
5	Craig Winstanley ⁶ , Scott C Bell ^{4,5,7} , Iain L Lamont ^{1*}
6	¹ Department of Biochemistry, University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand
7	² School of Biological Sciences, Victoria University of Wellington, Wellington, New Zealand
8	³ Department of Medicine, University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand.
9	⁶ Institute of Infection and Global Health, University of Liverpool, Liverpool, United Kingdom
10	⁴ Lung Bacteria Group, QIMR Berghofer Medical Research Institute, Brisbane, Australia
11	⁵ Department of Thoracic Medicine, The Prince Charles Hospital, Brisbane, Australia
12	⁷ Faculty of Medicine, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia
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19	*Corresponding Authors
20	Kay A Ramsay
21	Phone: +64 479 7847
22	Email: <u>kay.ramsay@otago.ac.nz</u>
23	Iain L Lamont
24	Phone: +64 3 479 7864
25	Email: iain.lamont@otago.ac.nz

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26 Orcid Id

- 27 Kay A Ramsay: 0000-0002-6682-9351
- 28 Samuel J T Wardell: NA
- 29 Wayne M Patrick: 0000-0002-2718-8053
- 30 Ben Brockway: NA
- 31 David W Reid: NA
- 32 Craig Winstanley: 0000-0002-2662-8053
- 33 Scott C Bell: 0000-0001-8651-7139
- 34 Iain L Lamont: 0000-0002-7601-6354
- 35

36 Author Contributions

Contribution	Author
Conceptualisation	ILL, WMP, CW, SCB
Methodology	ILL, KAR
Software	SJTW
Validation	KAR
Formal Analysis	KAR, SJTW
Investigation	KAR, SJTW
Resources	ILL
Data Curation	KAR
Writing – Original draft preparation	KAR
Writing – Review and editing	KAR, SJTW, WMP, BB, DWR, CW, SCB, ILL
Supervision	ILL
Funding	ILL, WMP, CW, SCB

37

38 Abstract

39 Patient-derived isolates of the opportunistic pathogen *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* are frequently resistant to antibiotics due to the presence of sequence variants in resistance-associated genes. 40 41 However, the frequency of antibiotic resistance and of resistance-associated sequence variants 42 in environmental isolates of P. aeruginosa has not been well studied. Antimicrobial 43 susceptibility testing (ciprofloxacin, ceftazidime, meropenem, tobramycin) of environmental 44 (n=50) and cystic fibrosis (n=42) P. aeruginosa isolates was carried out. Following whole 45 genome sequencing of all isolates, twenty-five resistance-associated genes were analysed for 46 the presence of likely function-altering sequence variants. Environmental isolates were 47 susceptible to all antibiotics with one exception, whereas patient-derived isolates had 48 significant frequencies of resistance to each antibiotic and a greater number of likely resistance-49 associated genetic variants. These findings indicate that the natural environment does not act 50 as a reservoir of antibiotic-resistant *P. aeruginosa*, supporting a model in which antibiotic 51 susceptible environmental bacteria infect patients and develop resistance during infection.

52

53 Introduction

54 As an environmental bacterium, Pseudomonas aeruginosa has been isolated from many 55 different niches including water sources and domestic and health-care settings (1-4). While 56 rarely causing infections in healthy individuals, this opportunistic pathogen can cause a range 57 of infections in people who are immunocompromised or have predisposing conditions such as cystic fibrosis (CF) (1). For adults with CF, P. aeruginosa is the most prevalent bacterium 58 59 causing respiratory infection and P. aeruginosa from these infections are frequently resistant 60 to antibiotics, complicating treatment (5). Resistance is associated with variants in key genes that reduce the intracellular concentrations of antibiotics or the affinities of target proteins for 61 62 antibiotics, relative to antibiotic-susceptible isolates (6). Infection arises from exposure to 63 environmental sources of *P. aeruginosa* included both the natural and health-care environment 64 (1). Epidemiological studies of isolates obtained from high infection risk areas, such as healthcare settings, domestic and community areas show that antibiotic resistant *P. aeruginosa* can 65 66 be present providing a potential reservoir of infectious resistant bacteria (7-18). Acquisition of *P. aeruginosa* from the natural environment, typically during childhood, is also a major source 67 68 of infection with a number of studies identifying genotypically indistinguishable strains in the 69 natural environment and the respiratory tract of CF patients (3, 19-22). However antibiotic 70 susceptibility of isolates from natural (non-man-made) environmental sources has had very 71 limited studies and so it is not clear whether the natural environment provides a reservoir of 72 antibiotic-resistant P. aeruginosa (7, 23, 24). Using a cohort of clinical isolates as a 73 comparator, here we determined the prevalence of antibiotic resistance in *P. aeruginosa* from 74 the natural environment (river), the domestic and community settings (swimming pool and 75 water tank) by assessing antimicrobial susceptibility profiles and allelic variations in resistance 76 genes of P. aeruginosa.

77

78 Materials and Methods

79 Isolate Selection and identification

80 Fifty environmental P. aeruginosa isolates obtained from water sources in Queensland, 81 Australia and 42 clinical P. aeruginosa isolates obtained from CF patients residing in Australia 82 and New Zealand were examined (Supplementary Table 1). Environmental isolates included those obtained from rivers (n=36), swimming pools (n=13) and one sample from a domestic 83 84 water tank. Individual multi-locus sequence types (MLST) were present in singleton isolates, 85 expect for sequence types (ST) -155, -179, -266 and -381 which were represented once each in both the CF and environmental isolate cohorts. Isolate identification and MLST typing were 86 87 confirmed using molecular techniques (https://pubmlst.org/ paeruginosa/) (25-27).

88 Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing

89 The minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of ciprofloxacin, meropenem, tobramycin and 90 ceftazidime was determined for all the 92 isolates using ETEST® strips and methodology. The 91 breakpoint was determined according to the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) 92 guidelines (https://clsi.org/).

93 Whole genome sequencing and bioinformatic analysis

94 DNA was extracted from each strain using the MoBio UltraClean® Microbial DNA isolation 95 kit in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions. Isolates were sequenced to ~50-fold 96 (50x) coverage using illumina MiSeq, 2x150, or 2x300 basepair (bp) paired-end reads. Raw 97 sequence reads were trimmed using Trimmomatic version 0.36 (28). Draft genomes were 98 assembled using SPAdes version 3.12.0 as described previously (29).

99 Resistance Gene Analysis

100 Genome assemblies were used for the comparison of 25 well characterised genes associated 101 with antibiotic resistance, reference with sequences sourced from 102 https://www.pseudomonas.com (Supplementary Table 2). Protein Variation Effect Analyzer 103 (PROVEAN) version 1.1 was utilised to identify and analyse genetic variants within the chosen 104 genes (30). Genetic variants (amino acid substitutions) were categorised in accordance to 105 PROVEAN scores, as predicted function-altering variants (PROVEAN score: \leq -2.5) or 106 variants not predicted to affect function (PROVEAN score: > -2.5). Additionally, each genome 107 was manually screened using tblastn for premature stop codons and deletions which were also 108 classified as function-altering variants (31).

109 ResFinder version 3.1 was used with a prebuilt ResFinder database, including all relevant 110 antibiotics, to determine whether resistance could be affected by acquired genes 111 (https://cge.cbs.dtu.dk/services/ResFinder/).

- 112 Statistical analysis

113 SPSS version 25 was used for statistical analysis. Pearson's chi-square test was used to 114 examine the association between niche and phenotype (susceptible or resistant) and niche and 115 genotype. When more than 20% of the expected values were less than five, Fisher's exact test 116 were used. A *P*-value of <0.05 was considered significant.

117

118 **Results and Discussion**

A total of 50 isolates of *P. aeruginosa* from the natural environment and 42 isolates from
patients with CF were included in this study. The isolates are genetically diverse and broadly
representative of the *P. aeruginosa* species (Supplementary Figure S1).

122 <u>Environmental isolates are antibiotic susceptible</u>

All 50 environmental isolates were susceptible to ciprofloxacin, meropenem and tobramycin 123 124 and only one of these isolates was resistant to ceftazidime (Figure 1, Supplementary Table 3). 125 Conversely, a non-susceptible (intermediate or resistant) phenotype was observed for 15 of the 126 42 CF isolates. Specifically, 10%, 17% 19% and 21% of the CF isolates were non-susceptible 127 to tobramycin, meropenem, ceftazidime and ciprofloxacin, respectively (Figure 1, Supplementary Table 4). Overall, the frequency of resistant isolates was significantly less in 128 the environmental cohort than the CF cohort (ceftazidime P=0.010, ciprofloxacin P=0.001, 129 130 meropenem P=0.003, tobramycin P=0.040). Due to limited availability of clinical information 131 we were unable to characterise CF infections as either early/transient or chronic to assess 132 whether resistance is more prevalent in chronically infected patients. However, when we categorised the CF isolates according to patient age (adult >18 years; adult n=29, paediatric 133 134 n=13), isolates from two paediatric patients (15.4%) demonstrated antibiotic resistance 135 compared with isolates from 13 adults (44.8%) (P=0.066) (Figure 1). Overall our findings are in agreement with a model of bacterial adaptation during infection leading to increased 136 137 resistance over time (32). Our results demonstrate that environmental isolates are susceptible to clinically relevant antibiotics and that the environments we tested are not a reservoir forantibiotic resistant isolates.

140 Environmental isolates have fewer predicted function-altering variants in resistance-

141 associated genes

142 We analysed 25 well characterised resistance-associated genes for the presence of likely 143 function-altering variants that could influence antibiotic susceptibility (Supplementary Table 144 2). The environmental isolates had strikingly fewer predicted function-altering variants than 145 the CF isolates. A total of 75 predicted function-altering variants were identified within 18 of 146 25 resistance genes analysed for the 50 environmental isolates. No predicted function-altering 147 variants were identified in the remaining seven genes (Supplementary Table 3). In this cohort, 148 the predicted function-altering variants are generally not sufficient to confer antibiotic 149 resistance as all except one isolate was fully susceptible to the antibiotics tested. In contrast, 150 110 predicted function-altering variants affecting all 25 resistance-associated genes were 151 identified in the 42 CF isolates. Function-altering variants not analysed by PROVEAN, 152 including premature stop-codons and deletions, were absent in the environmental cohort but 153 were present in nine CF isolates (premature stop-codons n=8, deletions n=2) (Supplementary 154 Table 4). Overall, variants in the environmental cohort had a significantly higher PROVEAN score than those in the CF cohort (P < 0.001), indicating the presence of fewer amino acid 155 156 substitutions that may affect function of resistance-associated proteins (Supplementary Figure 157 2).

The frequency of function-altering variants within each gene was determined for both cohorts of isolates (Table 1). Statistical differences were noted for 6 genes in the CF cohort with a greater number of function-altering variants being present in *amgS* and *fusA*1 (tobramycin resistance), *gyrA* and *gyrB* (ciprofloxacin resistance) and *mexZ* (broad-spectrum resistance) genes for isolates in the CF cohort, and in *ampE* (β -lactam resistance) for the natural environmental isolates (Table 1). Specific variants present in these genes, such as T83I (*gyrA*), and R504C (*ftsI*) previously associated with resistance were only present in the CF isolate cohort only (33, 34). However, a strong association between individual gene variants and resistance phenotype was not observed (Supplementary Table 4) due to the low numbers of isolates with variants for each gene combined with the multifactorial nature of antibiotic resistance in *P. aeruginosa*.

ResFinder analysis assessing the presence of horizontally acquired resistance genes identified a gene *crpP* associated with fluoroquinolone resistance (35). However there was no correlation between ciprofloxacin resistance and the presence of *crpP* for the isolates in this study (Supplementary Table 3 and 4). No other horizontally-transferred resistance genes were identified.

In conclusion, our findings show that isolates from *P. aeruginosa* from natural environments have low frequencies of antibiotic resistance, and of genetic variants associated with resistance, compared to isolates from patients with CF. These findings indicate that the natural environment is unlikely to act as a reservoir of antibiotic-resistant *P. aeruginosa*. They are consistent with a model in which patients are infected by antibiotic-sensitive *P. aeruginosa* from the environment which then evolves to become antibiotic-resistant during infection (32).

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191

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199

200 Transparency declarations

K.A.R, S.J.T-W, W.M.P, B.B, D.W.R and I.L.L have nothing to declare. S.C.B is a Member
of Advisory Board, Member of Writing group, Site Principle Investigator, author on several
Rempex sponsored studies, a member of advisory boards for Vertex, Abbvie and Galapagos
and has received support to attend meetings including advisory boards and investigator
meetings. CW was a member of a Chiesi Limited CF Microbiology Advisory Board (12
September 2018).

207

Table 1: Comparison of predicted function altering variants identified in the CF and 208

209 environmental isolates (n = 92).

	Predicted function	altering variants ^{\$}	
Gene	Environment (n=50)	CF (n=42)	P-value†
amgR	0	1	0.457*
amgS	0	5	0.017*
ampC	15	17	0.293
ampD	9	5	0.418
ampDh2	1	3	0.328*
ampDh3	6	6	0.746
ampE	14	4	0.026
ampG	0	1	0.457*
ampR	7	3	0.336*
aph3'IIb	19	19	0.204
ftsI	1	5	0.089*
fusA1	0	16	< 0.001
galU	0	1	0.457*
gyrA	1	10	0.001
gyrB	0	6	0.007*
mexR	1	1	1.00*
mexZ	1	14	< 0.001
mpl	1	4	0.174*
nalC	1	3	0.328*
nalD	0	3	0.091*
nfxB	3	5	0.462*
nuoG	3	2	1.00*
oprD	41	36	0.631
parC	1	1	1.00*
parE	2	3	0.657*

210

^{\$}PROVEAN predicted function-altering variants, premature stop codons and deletions.

[†]Chi-square value; ^{*}Fisher's Exact Test used in place of chi-square test 211

P-value <0.05 is considered significant 212

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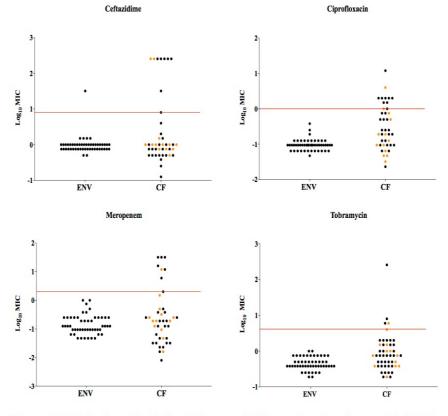


Figure 1: Distribution of antimicrobial susceptibility results of environmental (ENV; n=50) and cystic fibrosis (CF; n=42) isolates for ciprofloxacin, ceftazidime, meropenem and tobramycin. The horizontal red lines represent the antibiotic breakpoint as defined by the CLSI. The CF isolates have been further differentiated into samples collected from adult (black circles) and paediatric (orange circles) patients. The MIC results have been log transformed (log₁₀) for ease of graphical representation.

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