Anaerobic conditions unmask antimicrobial resistance

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Keywords: Antimicrobial resistance, AMR, antibiotics, cholera, diarrhoea, diarrhea,

Vibrio cholerae, enteropathogens, Bangladesh, anaerobic, anoxic, hypoxic, respiration

Abstract

Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) in Gram negative enteropathogens is an urgent threat to the antibiotic formulary. These taxa undergo anaerobic respiration within the host, yet little is known about how anaerobic conditions influence antimicrobial resistance (AMR). The facultative enteropathogen *Vibrio cholerae* was chosen as a model to determine the impact of anaerobic growth on AMR because cholera is one of the few non-invasive diarrhoeal diseases for which antibiotics are indicated, albeit conditionally. *V. cholerae* isolates from a single outbreak were tested for resistance by minimal inhibitory concentrations (MIC) under aerobic and anaerobic conditions against clinically relevant antibiotics. Here we show that the odds of classifying isolates as resistant under anaerobic compared to aerobic conditions increased over 20 times for ciprofloxacin and 50 times for azithromycin, yet for doxycycline, all isolates remained below the breakpoint for resistance. Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) found significant associations between known and unknown genetic elements and AMR phenotypes that varied by oxygen exposure and antibiotic concentrations. In most cases, AMR phenotypes were more heritable – and more genes significantly associated with AMR were discovered – under anaerobic conditions compared to aerobic conditions. These findings challenge the paradigm of testing facultative enteropathogens for AMR under aerobic conditions alone. This experimental approach establishes a new, more sensitive framework to track and investigate mechanisms of AMR.

INTRODUCTION

Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) in Gram negative pathogens arises by point mutation(s) and AMR gene acquisition and is selected by high rates of inappropriate antibiotic use. Fast and accurate approaches to identify AMR are needed to gauge the extent to which the antibiotic formulary is threatened. However, knowledge gaps remain on the factors and mechanisms that result in AMR. There are also debates surrounding how well conventional *in vitro* assays represent *in vivo* physiology. For example, facultative anaerobic pathogens experience hypoxia and anoxia within the gastrointestinal tract^{1,2}, yet standard *in vitro* assays test for AMR under aerobic conditions alone³. How a factor as fundamental as oxygen exposure effects AMR is poorly understood. To investigate this question, we chose the facultative anaerobe *Vibrio cholerae* as a model system. In *V. cholerae* mechanisms of AMR and anaerobic growth are well characterized *in vivo* and *in vitro*⁴⁻¹¹, and cholera is one of the few non-invasive diarrhoeal diseases for which antibiotics are indicated, albeit conditionally.

Rehydration is the definitive intervention for acute diarrhoeal disease¹². Antibiotics are supportive and indicated for only a few diarrhoeal diseases, including cholera^{13,14}. The World Health Organization (WHO) recommends ciprofloxacin, azithromycin or doxycycline for cholera patients with severe dehydration^{12,14-16}. Antibiotics shorten the frequency and duration of diarrhoea¹⁶. In practice, guideline adherence in cholera endemic regions may be low out of clinical concern that a patient 'might have cholera' and that the patient may develop severe dehydration, contributing to rates of inappropriate antibiotic usage that can rise above 90%^{17,18}. Strong regional associations between antibiotic use and rise of AMR have been observed across enteric taxa,

including *V. cholerae*¹⁹⁻²¹. Given that AMR genetic elements frequently co-localize on mobile elements²², inappropriate single-agent therapy poses a risk of multidrug-resistance (MDR) selection.

Associations between AMR phenotypes and genotypes are well known for the three antibiotics recommended to treat cholera; the cognate AMR mechanisms share commonality across Gram negative taxa. Ciprofloxacin (a fluoroquinolone) resistance mechanisms include mutations in genes encoding type II topoisomerases (e.g. *gyrA*, *gyrB*, *parC*, *parE*)^{23,24}. Synergy occurs such that mutations in *gyrA* and *parC* increase ciprofloxacin resistance 60-fold, but the individual effects are 10- to 16-fold and 0-fold, respectively^{23,25-28}. Efflux pump upregulation, porin loss and Qnr expression also convey fluoroquinolone resistance^{23,24}. Resistance can increase over 30-fold when strains harbor *qnr* family genes^{23,29,30}. In *V. cholerae*, *qnr_{V.cholerae}* resides on an integrative and conjugative element (ICE; ‘SXT’ in *V. cholerae*)^{22,31-34}. Azithromycin (a macrolide) resistance mechanisms are similarly diverse and include mutations in the 23S ribosomal RNA (rRNA) target genes and ribosomal protein genes. Macrolide resistance is also conveyed by carriage of rRNA methyltransferase genes (*erm*) and associated induction mechanisms, *cis*-acting peptides, efflux systems (e.g. *mef*, *msr*), macrolide esterases (e.g. *ere*), and macrolide phosphotransferases (e.g. *mphA*, which often resides in the *V. cholerae* SXT element)³⁵. Doxycycline (a tetracycline) resistance is conferred by mutations in the 16S rRNA component of the 30S ribosomal subunit³⁶. Additional mechanisms include tetracycline-specific ribosomal protection proteins (RPPs), tetracycline specific efflux pumps (e.g. *tet(59)*) that can reside on SXT element in *V.*

cholerae, intrinsic efflux pumps, AraC-transcriptional activators, and cytoplasmic ATP-dependent serine proteases³⁶.

Complex associations between AMR phenotypes and genotypes have been studied by random mutagenesis, phenotypic screening, and network analyses³⁷⁻⁴², and applied in *V. cholerae*⁴³. These studies uncovered how the effect of an antibiotic is shaped by a large number of often more subtle physiologic perturbations, including altered DNA synthesis/repair, central metabolism/growth, and SOS response⁴⁴⁻⁴⁶. A limitation of AMR assays conducted under aerobic conditions alone is that they may not reflect these physiologic perturbations experienced in the host. Aerobic oxidative phosphorylation generates reactive oxygen species (ROS) that are lethal unless a sufficient defense is mounted by factors like superoxide dismutase, catalase, and glutathione systems^{47,48}. Under anaerobic conditions, growth rate typically slows and proton motive force is reduced^{49,50}, which can have both synergistic and antagonistic effects on antibiotics^{46,51}. In *Escherichia coli*, ROS are generated after fluoroquinolone (bactericidal) treatment under aerobic conditions⁵² and fluoroquinolone tolerance increases under anaerobic conditions⁵³⁻⁵⁵. The extent to which tetracyclines and macrolides (both bacteriostatic) induce ROS and how anaerobiosis influences tolerance is less known^{44,56,57}.

The objective of this study was to compare AMR phenotypes with underlying genotypes under aerobic and anaerobic conditions. We hypothesized that rates of AMR would differ between aerobic and anaerobic conditions, and that distinct genetic elements would be associated with phenotypes under the different conditions. To test these two hypotheses, *V. cholerae* isolates were collected from cholera patients⁵⁸. We found that phenotypic resistance to ciprofloxacin and azithromycin, but not to doxycycline,

increased significantly under anaerobic conditions. Testing under anaerobic conditions also allowed us to discover novel genes associated with AMR. Taken together, our results show how the genetic basis of AMR differs between aerobic and anaerobic conditions, with implications for AMR surveillance in public health, research and clinical settings.

METHODS

Clinical sample collection. The clinical samples in this study were collected as part of a previously published IRB approved study⁵⁸. Recruitment, consent, enrollment and procedures have been described previously⁵⁸. In brief, stool samples were obtained during the spring cholera outbreak period of 2006 at the International Centre for Diarrhoeal Disease Research, Bangladesh (icddr,b) in Dhaka, Bangladesh. Samples were collected prior to hospital administration of antibiotics; patient histories were negative for known antibiotic exposure. The library consists of 67 *V. cholerae* isolates (Supplementary Table 1). Paired stool supernatant was available for 50 isolates.

Antimicrobial resistance testing. Growth kinetics and MIC determinations for ciprofloxacin, azithromycin, and doxycycline were performed in LB broth with twelve two-fold serial dilutions with concentrations approximated for CLSI MIC breakpoints³ for *V. cholerae* (ciprofloxacin = 2 µg/ml; azithromycin = 4 µg/ml; doxycycline = 16 µg/ml)³. Isolates were prepared and grown aerobically at 37°C in 15-ml tubes containing 5-ml LB broth at 220 r.p.m. Bacteria were back-diluted to a final OD₆₀₀ of 0.01 (200 µl/well) in LB with or without the respective antibiotic dilution-series in black Corning CoStar clear-bottom 96-well plates. Plates were placed in a BioTek Synergy H1 reader pre-warmed

to 37°C with the lid on. Anaerobic conditions were generated using a continuous chamber flow (5% CO₂, 95% N₂) and a BioTek CO₂/O₂ gas controller; anaerobic growth plates were given a 10-minute equilibration period. OD₆₀₀ was measured every 2 minutes for 8 hours at 37°C with orbital shaking at 220 r.p.m. A standard logistic equation was fit to growth curve data using the R package *growthcurver* version 0.3.0⁵⁹. Outcome measures were generation time, carrying capacity (k), and area under the curve (AUC). The MIC was determined using a logistic fit for growth over the twelve, two-fold serial dilutions of the test antibiotic. Binary phenotypic resistance categories were set in concordance with CLSI standards. Intermediate and resistant isolates were scored as resistant.

Use of catalase to determine if ROSs contribute to antibiotic sensitivity. To test if the reduction of reactive oxygen species (ROSs) was associated with increased tolerance to antibiotics under aerobic conditions, MICs were determined for two select strains (E7946, EN160) with/without catalase added to the media (10 U/ml). Catalase quenches H₂O₂ that freely diffuses across the cell envelope. Controls consisted of adding 10 mM H₂O₂ to media with catalase, bacteria, or catalase and bacteria. The catalase and H₂O₂ concentrations were chosen based on optimization experiments in which *V. cholerae* were cultured with a gradient of catalase (0, 0.001, 0.01, 0.1, 1, 10 U/ml) and a gradient H₂O₂ (0, 0.1, 1, 10 mM). Growth curves were performed with viable counts as endpoints to determine the minimum dose for lethality by H₂O₂ or protection by catalase (data not shown).

Whole-genome sequencing. Genomic DNA was extracted from *V. cholerae* isolates using the Qiagen DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit. Library construction was completed

using the Illumina Nextera XT v.2 DNA Library Preparation Kit. Twenty-four genomes were pooled and sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq for 500 cycles per run. Using CLC Genomics Workbench v20, raw reads were filtered by length, trimmed, and mapped to the reference genome (*V. cholerae* O1 El Tor E7946) to identify single-nucleotide variants. To identify genes not present in the reference genome, contigs were assembled *de novo* using CLC Genomics Workbench v20. Known resistance genes were identified using the comprehensive antibiotic resistance database (CARD)^{60,61} and ResFinder^{62,63}.

Genome-wide association studies. A series of genome-wide association studies (GWAS) were conducted to detect genomic variants associated with antibiotic resistance phenotypes under both aerobic and anaerobic conditions; a total of 30 GWAS were generated by 3 antibiotics x 5 antibiotic concentrations x 2 oxygen conditions. The sample size for analysis was 67 genomes. To extract genomic variants, which can potentially capture all sources of variation in the genome (i.e single nucleotide variants, indels and gene presence/absence) without *a priori* assumption about the underlying gene content of each sample (e.g. accessory genes or plasmids), unitigs were generated from genomes assembled using GATB⁶⁴. Unitigs are sequences of variable length (unlike k-mers of fixed length *k*) which represent the variations in the population of genomes under study in high-resolution. GWAS were performed using linear mixed models implemented in pyseer v.1.3.6 and adjusted for population stratification using the kinship matrix estimated from the phylogenetic tree⁶⁵.

To generate the phylogenetic tree, genome alignments consisting entirely of variable nucleotides were produced from whole genome SNP data generated by CLC Genomics

Workbench v20 using VCF-kit 0.1.6⁶⁶. The tree was then inferred by RaxML under the general time reversible (GTR) model with rate variation across sites following a GAMMA distribution⁶⁷. We used the linear-mixed model approach to adjust for population stratification and linkage disequilibrium in microbial GWAS⁶⁸. Heritability (h^2), an estimate of the proportion of the phenotype variance that can be explained by total genomic variation represented in the unitigs, was also calculated using pyseer v.1.3.6. Likelihood-ratio test p -values for the association tests were adjusted for multiple-testing by Bonferroni correction (at a genome-wide false discovery rate of 0.05) for the number of unique unitig patterns (i.e. only giving one count to a unitig with an identical presence/absence profile across genomes). We also removed unitigs tagged with the errors 'bad-chisq', 'pre-filtering-failed', 'lrt-filtering-failed', 'firth-fail' and 'matrix-inversionerror' after the analysis. To further remove false positive GWAS hits, we removed any considerable clusters of unitigs (> 20) with identical p -values, as these are likely to be lineage-specific markers or markers with strong linkage disequilibrium comprised of mostly non-causal variants linked on the same clonal frame. GWAS hits were annotated by mapping the unitigs to two reference genomes of *V. cholerae*, namely, E7946 (NCBI assembly accession number: GCA_002749635.1) and O1 biotype El Tor strain N16961 (NCBI assembly accession number: GCA_003063785.1) using BWA. Statistically significant GWAS hits were further annotated with the CARD resistance gene identifier (RGI) after filtering the 'loose' hits and hits with identity <0.90.

Antibiotic detection by liquid chromatography mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS).

This approach was based on former studies⁶⁹. Stool supernatants were centrifuged and filtered (0.2 μ M surfactant-free cellulose acetate; Thermo Scientific Nalgene). Proteins

were precipitated (1:7 ratio (v/v) of water::methanol). Supernatants were diluted with methanol and water (1:1 v/v) in 0.1% formic acid for liquid chromatography, and 5 µl of supernatant was injected for analysis. LC/MSMS was performed on a 2.1 x 150-mm Hypersil Gold aQ column (particle size, 3 µm) using a high-performance liquid chromatography system (Thermo UltiMate 3000 series) with an LTQ XL ion trap mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Mobile phases were 1% formic acid in water (A) and 1% formic acid in methanol (B) and held at a constant 5%B for 2min before ramping to 95%B at 15 min where it was held for an additional minute before returning to starting conditions for a total run time of 25 min.

Eluent was ionized using electrospray ionization (ESI) in positive mode at a spray voltage of 5 kV, a nitrogen sheath gas flow rate of 8 L min⁻¹, and capillary temperature of 300°C. Two scan events were programmed to perform an initial scan from *m/z* 100 to 1000, which was followed by targeted collision induced dissociation based on a retention time and mass list. Retention time windows ranged from 0.35 minutes to 6.50 min, depending on the elution range of the standards at high and low concentrations. Masses were targeted for the most abundant adduct or ion associated with each antibiotic (typically the [M+H]⁺ ion) with a *m/z* 1 window. Data analysis for the amoxicillin, sulfamethoxazole/trimethoprim, azithromycin, tetracycline, doxycycline, metronidazole, nalidixic acid, and ciprofloxacin was performed manually using extracted ion chromatograms and MSMS matching with an in-house antibiotic MSMS library using Xcalibur 2.2 SP 1.48 (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

Statistical analysis. Bivariate analyses of categorical data were analyzed using Fisher's Exact Test, and continuous data were analyzed using the Mann-Whitney U Test ($\alpha = 0.05$). McNemar's test was used to analyze paired data ($\alpha = 0.05$).

RESULTS

Comparison of antimicrobial resistance under aerobic and anaerobic conditions.

Pairwise analysis for baseline growth parameters found that carrying capacity, AUC, and growth velocity were significantly lower under anaerobic compared to aerobic conditions (Supplementary Table 2). In this physiologic context, the distribution of resistance differed depending on aerobic versus anaerobic conditions (Fig. 1). The MIC modes for ciprofloxacin were 7 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ (min= 0.0016 $\mu\text{g/ml}$; max= 32 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) and 2 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ (min= 0.004 $\mu\text{g/ml}$; max= 8 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) under anaerobic and aerobic conditions, respectively (Supplementary Table 3). The rates of resistance under anaerobic (93%; N= 62/67) and aerobic (54%; N=36/67) conditions were significantly different (Fig. 1a; Supplementary Table 4). For azithromycin, the MIC modes were 32 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ (min= 8 $\mu\text{g/ml}$; max= 128 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) and 4 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ (min= 1 $\mu\text{g/ml}$; max= 32 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) under anaerobic and aerobic conditions respectively (Supplementary Table 3). The rates of resistance under anaerobic (n=67/67; 100%) and aerobic (n=15/67; 22%) conditions were significantly different (Fig. 1b; Supplementary Table 4). For doxycycline, the MIC modes were 1 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ under both aerobic and anaerobic conditions, respectively (Supplementary Table 3); only two isolates were found to be resistant under anaerobic conditions and one under aerobic conditions. Taken together, the odds of classifying isolates as resistant under anaerobic compared to aerobic conditions increased over 20 times for

ciprofloxacin (OR= 27; 95% CI= 4.45-1105) and over 50 times for azithromycin (OR = 53; 95% CI= 9.10-2134; Supplementary Table 4).

Addition of catalase to test if reactive oxygen species effect antibiotic

tolerance/sensitivity under aerobic conditions. For ciprofloxacin, the MICs for the sensitive reference strain E7946 (Cip^S, Azi^S, Dox^S) and the resistant clinical isolate EN160 (Cip^R, Azi^R, Dox^S) remained unchanged when catalase was added to the media under aerobic conditions. The addition of catalase was not associated with differences in AUCs for both E7946 and EN160 in media containing ciprofloxacin, azithromycin, or doxycycline at 2-fold below the MIC. The AUCs in LB media with and without catalase alone for E7946 and EN160 were not statistically different (Supplementary Table 5).

Characterization of known AMR genetic elements under aerobic and anaerobic conditions. The distribution of known AMR genetic elements (Fig. 2) was grouped by point mutations (likely transmitted vertically, not on an established mobilizable element) and horizontal transmission (on an established mobilizable element).

Point mutations in known AMR genes. For ciprofloxacin, the most identified known resistance mutations were those in the topoisomerase encoding genes *gyrA* (VC1258/RS06370) (Ser83Ile) and *parC* (VC2430/RS12340) (Ser85Leu). These were present in 60% (40/67) and 70% (47/67) of all isolates, while 54% (36/57) contained both. For azithromycin, we found no mutations in known resistance genes encoding ribosomal proteins L4 (*rpL4*;VC2595/RS13175) and L22 (*rpL22*;VC2591/RS13155)^{70,71}. For tetracycline (proxy for doxycycline), one of the 9 total 16S rRNA genes (VCr001) was found to have a single nucleotide insertion of a G nucleotide at position 327 within

the sequences of 15% (10/67) of isolates; the significance is unknown. No mutations were detected in the 30S ribosomal protein encoded by genes *rpsJ* (VC2597/RS13185) or *rpsC* (VC2590/RS13150), whose mutations have been associated with tetracycline class resistance in other Gram negative organisms ⁷²⁻⁷⁴.

AMR genes on mobile genetic elements. The integrative conjugative element (ICE) SXT/R391 was found in 90% (60/67) of isolates. The ICE contained a pentapeptide repeat protein conferring fluoroquinolone resistance (*qnr_{VC}*), a macrolide-inactivating phosphotransferase (*mph(A)*), and a major facilitator superfamily (MFS) efflux pump conferring tetracycline resistance (*tet(59)*) ⁷⁵⁻⁷⁸. The genes *qnr_{VC}*, *mph(A)*, and *tet(59)* were also found in 78% (52/67), 33% (22/67), and 78% (52/67) of isolates, respectively.

We examined to what extent these point mutations and genes were associated with resistance. Ciprofloxacin resistance under both anaerobic and aerobic conditions was significantly associated with *qnr_{VC}*, *gyrA* and *parC* (Supplementary Table 6). Identification of the known azithromycin AMR gene *mph(A)* was significantly associated with resistance under aerobic conditions alone (P<0.001). The gene *tet(59)* was not associated with doxycycline resistance under aerobic or anaerobic conditions (both p=0.566).

Discovery of AMR associated genetic elements under aerobic and anaerobic conditions. To more broadly explore the genetic basis of AMR, we conducted genome-wide association studies (GWAS). This approach used the phenotype of area under the curve (AUC) to represent ‘growth’ with or without exposure to the three antibiotics at five concentrations under either aerobic or anaerobic conditions. Phenotypes (AUCs) at

similar antibiotic concentrations were positively correlated within aerobic and anaerobic conditions for all three antibiotics (Fig. 3). Phenotypes were also positively correlated between aerobic and anaerobic conditions for ciprofloxacin (Fig. 3a). However, AUCs were weakly, or even negatively, correlated between aerobic and anaerobic conditions for azithromycin and doxycycline (Fig. 3b,c). These results reinforce the idea that anaerobic and aerobic growth are distinct under antibiotic pressure.

The heritability of the AMR phenotypes (AUCs) was estimated prior to the GWAS. Heritability (h^2) was defined as the proportion of phenotypic variation explained by genetic variation, measured as unique contiguous tracts of the genome (unitigs) that tag both single nucleotide variants, indels, and gene content changes (Methods). We found relatively high heritability (h^2 in the range 0.60-0.99) of growth across concentrations of ciprofloxacin under both aerobic and anaerobic conditions, yielding statistically significant GWAS hits (Table 1; Supplementary Data Files). In contrast, heritability tended to be much lower under aerobic compared to anaerobic conditions for both azithromycin and doxycycline, yielding significant GWAS hits only under anaerobic conditions (Table 1; Supplementary Data Files).

AMR genes identified by GWAS were diverse (Fig. 4; Supplementary Data Files). These candidates included known AMR genes, such as *qnrVC* and *dfrA*, which were associated with ciprofloxacin resistance under both aerobic and anaerobic conditions. We identified seven genes associated with ciprofloxacin resistance under anaerobic conditions alone (including the stress response gene *barA* and a *radC* homolog involved in DNA repair), and ten genes under aerobic conditions alone (including *rtxB*). Under anaerobic conditions, most genes were identified at ciprofloxacin concentrations at or

above 0.25 µg/ml; however, four genes, including *barA*, were identified under one of the lowest tested ciprofloxacin concentrations (0.13 µg/ml). GWAS hits for doxycycline and azithromycin resistance were found only under anaerobic conditions. For azithromycin, two genetic elements were identified: *mphA* and a region between *ompT* and *dinG* (*ompT-dinG*). For doxycycline, 23 genes were shared across concentrations; however, the gene discovery rate was highest at the lower concentrations (n=53 at 0.13 µg/ml; n=26 µg/ml). GWAS hits included the major facilitator superfamily antibiotic efflux pump *tet(59)* (Fig. 4, Supplementary Data Files). The majority of genetic elements identified by GWAS for all three antibiotics have unknown function, yet the rate of detection of known AMR genes suggests that the genes of unknown function may indeed play a role in AMR.

Associations between antibiotics detected in stool by LC-MS/MS and rates of AMR at the genotypic and phenotypic levels. A total of 198 antibiotics were detected in the 51 stool supernatants tested (Fig. 5). At least one antibiotic was detected in 98% (n=50/51), at least two antibiotics were detected in 94% (n=48/51), and 3 or more antibiotics were detected in 90% (n=46/51) of stool supernatants (Fig. 5). Antibiotics detected were ciprofloxacin (n=48/51; 94%), nalidixic acid (n=41/51; 80%), metronidazole (n=37/51; 73%), tetracycline (n=24/51; 47%), doxycycline (n=24/51; 47%), bactrim (sulfamethoxazole/trimethoprim; n=22/51; 43%), and amoxicillin (n=2/51; 43%); azithromycin was not detected. We hypothesized that resistance to ciprofloxacin, azithromycin and/or doxycycline in the isolates would correlate with antibiotic detection in the paired stool sample by LC-MS/MS. For quinolone/fluoroquinolone and tetracycline/doxycycline, detection by LC-MS/MS was not associated with AMR

genotypes or phenotypes (Supplementary Table 7). Associations for azithromycin could not be tested because azithromycin was not detected.

DISCUSSION

In this study, the rate of resistance among clinical isolates differed significantly between aerobic and anaerobic conditions. The extent to which isolates became tolerant to antibiotic exposure under anaerobic conditions differed by antibiotic class. The genetic basis of resistance was uniquely discoverable under anaerobic conditions and differed by antibiotic class. These findings challenge the convention of testing facultative enteropathogens for AMR under aerobic conditions alone. The approach of using AUC growth curve data as a dependent continuous variable for GWAS to identify AMR genetic elements under aerobic and anaerobic conditions provides a new methodologic framework to better track AMR for clinical stewardship and public health surveillance.

Antibiotics from three disparate classes were studied. The experiments revealed commonalities as well as important difference between classes. The odds of classifying isolates as resistant under anaerobic conditions compared to aerobic conditions increased over 20 times for ciprofloxacin and over 50 times for azithromycin.

Generalizable physiologic mechanisms for increased tolerance to antibiotics under anaerobic conditions may include reduced doubling-time or growth rate limiting the impact of agents that directly or indirectly disrupt cell envelope integrity. Additional mechanisms include reduction in proton motive force that impacts the capacity to pump agents across the cell envelope, and ROS that induce both intracellular and cell wall stress and can act synergistically to potentiate antibiotic lethality. The assays that

utilized catalase to quench hydrogen peroxide were conducted to evaluate this latter possibility. The assays were limited because catalase targets one type of ROS (hydrogen peroxide) in the extracellular space, which freely diffuses from the intracellular space. For the two strains tested, the MIC for all three antibiotics did not increase with the addition of catalase suggesting that the reduction of ROSs alone cannot account for increased MICs observed under anaerobic conditions (Supplementary Table 5).

Knowledge gaps on the genetic basis of AMR have decreased dramatically with the advance of whole-genome sequencing. However, this fund of knowledge is susceptible to bias because conventional methods use aerobic conditions to test for AMR among facultative enteropathogens. This study prioritized the factor of oxygen exposure as a determinant of AMR phenotype because facultative enteropathogens experience hypoxia and anoxia in the animal host. The first phase of the analysis focused on known AMR genotypes with known AMR phenotypes. For ciprofloxacin, mutations in *parC* and carriage of *qnr_{Vc}* significantly associated with phenotypic resistance under aerobic and anaerobic conditions; mutations in *gyrA* significantly associated with resistant phenotypes under anaerobic conditions alone. The lack of a significant association between *gyrA* mutations and phenotype under aerobic conditions may be due to the limited sample size. For azithromycin, *mphA* was identified and significantly associated with AMR phenotypes under aerobic and anaerobic conditions. While *tet(59)* was identified, very few isolates were identified as resistant to doxycycline under aerobic (n=1) or anaerobic conditions (n=2). These data demonstrate that the evaluation of the relationship between of AMR genotype and phenotype may strengthen under anaerobic

conditions and may expose an experimental bias in our historical understanding of AMR.

The second phase of analysis sought to identify unknown genetic elements associated with AMR. Initial attempts to use categorical data (resistant vs sensitive) in the GWAS resulted in modest gene discovery rates (data not shown). To address this problem, the continuous variable of AUC strengthened the GWAS. Breakpoint and sub-breakpoint concentrations were chosen based on a rationale that different genetic elements might contribute differently to AMR phenotypes at different antibiotic concentrations. GWAS expectedly identified *qnr_{Vc}* for ciprofloxacin exposure under aerobic and anaerobic conditions, *mphA* for azithromycin exposure under anaerobic conditions alone and *tet(59)* for doxycycline exposure under anaerobic conditions alone. For ciprofloxacin, seven genes were discovered in anaerobic conditions alone; these included a homolog for DNA repair (*radC*), 2-component histidine kinase involved in stress response (*barA*), and an ATP-dependent zinc protease. The genes *dfrA31* and APH(6)-Id were identified for both aerobic and anaerobic conditions and encode a trimethoprim-resistant dihydrofolate reductase and an antibiotic inactivation protein, respectively. These genes are located on SXT with *qnr_{Vc}* and may therefore be associated due to genetic linkage rather than due to causal roles in ciprofloxacin resistance. For azithromycin, two genetic elements under anaerobic conditions alone were identified: *mphA* (mentioned above) and an intergenic region between *ompT* (porin; known to be associated with AMR)^{79,80} and *dinG* (ATP-dependent DNA helicase). For doxycycline, a diverse set of 57 genetic elements under anaerobic conditions alone were identified that included *tet(59)* (mentioned above), *vexK* (efflux RND transporter permease associated with AMR)⁸¹⁻⁸³,

and *zorA* (anti-phage defense system ZorAB subunit A; a putative proton channel that may respond to membrane perturbation by depolarization)⁸⁴.

Genes associated with an AMR phenotype were found on SXT (e.g. *tet(59)*, *aph(6)-Id*, *radC*, *dfra1*) and discovered on the Vibrio Pathogenicity Island II (VSP II; N16961 VC0506-VC0512 / E7946 loci RS02705-RS02745); these loci are known to be genetically diverse in Bangladesh⁸⁵. The GWAS hits in VSP II encode both biofilm/ autoaggregation associated factors as well as an aerotaxis protein (AerB; VC0512)⁸⁶; findings consistent with roles in AMR and aerobic/ anaerobic conditions. The GWAS were limited by sample size and were at risk of increased false positive discovery rates at AMR ‘hot-spots’ like SXT. Despite these limitations, GWAS enabled the discovery of an intriguing list of genetic targets that were associated with AMR and require future molecular analysis to test for causal relationships.

LC-MS/MS analysis on paired stool supernatants was conducted to test the hypothesis that the rates of AMR genotypes and phenotypes were higher when the stool sample contained the cognate antibiotic. A quinolone/fluoroquinolone AMR genotype (known) or phenotype was not associated with quinolone or fluoroquinolone detection. A tetracycline/doxycycline AMR genotype (known) or phenotype was not associated with tetracycline/doxycycline detection. These results were limited by a low number of control samples negative for the antibiotic in question. While antibiotics were widespread, the LC-MS/MS data cannot be used to establish prevalence because the original enrollment criteria excluded patients that self-reported antibiotic intake. This would seem like a significant limitation, but a prior study documented that self-reports had no predictive value compared to antibiotics detected in stool by LC-MS/MS⁶⁹. This

study found nearly all patients shed at least one antibiotic despite self-reports of no antibiotic intake. The high detection rates of nalidixic acid detection as well as both doxycycline and tetracycline does not match clinical patterns of antibiotic prescription⁶⁹. Non-medical sources of antibiotic exposure include known food and water contamination with antibiotics⁸⁷. These data highlight the experimental difficulty of linking exposure to genotype and phenotype when the environment and clinical settings are nearly saturated with antibiotics. These results are a further call to action to increase antibiotic stewardship in healthcare as well as in the food-chain to combat AMR.

Conclusions

Facultative enteropathogens are exposed to antibiotics under aerobic and anaerobic conditions during their life history in both the human gut and in the environment. We used the facultative enteropathogen *V. cholerae* as a model to test for differences in AMR phenotypes under aerobic and anaerobic conditions. The odds of classifying isolates as resistant under anaerobic compared to aerobic conditions increased over 10 times for two of the three antibiotics tested. While several known resistance genes were associated with AMR under both conditions, many genes were only associated with AMR under one condition. In general, heritability tended to be higher and more genes associated with resistance under anaerobic conditions, suggesting that key genetic determinants of resistance may be missed when experiments are only performed aerobically. Taken together, these findings challenge the paradigm of testing facultative enteropathogens for AMR under aerobic conditions alone. The experimental approach herein may also establish a new, less biased framework to track and investigate mechanisms of AMR.

Acknowledgements

We thank the patients for participating in this study and the icddr,b clinical and laboratory teams that collected the samples. We are grateful to Randy Autrey and Krista Berquist for their administrative expertise, as well as Glenn Morris at the Emerging Pathogens Institute and Desmond Schatz in the Department of Pediatrics for their ongoing support at the University of Florida. Stephen Calderwood, Jason Harris, and Regina LaRocque were the principal investigators (PI) of the parent study/IRB protocol (Massachusetts General Hospital, Harvard University School of Medicine, USA) under which the samples were collected by EJM when he was a NIH Fogarty Fellow. Andrew Camilli provided additional reagents and insights for this manuscript; FQ was the principal investigator in Bangladesh and PI of the ERC/RRC approvals at the icddr,b. This generous research infrastructure and support was invaluable to the success of this study.

Data availability

Data analyzed in the manuscript have been made available in the online supplementary material.

Financial Support

This work was supported by the National Institutes of Health grants to EJM [DP5OD019893] and KBB [S10 OD021758-01A1] and internal support from the Emerging Pathogens Institute, the Departments of Pediatrics and the Department of Environmental and Global Health at the University of Florida. BJS and MMS were supported by a Genome Canada and Genome Quebec Bioinformatics and Computational Biology grant.

Disclaimer

The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

451 **Potential conflicts of interest.**

452 All authors: No reported conflicts.

FIGURES

FIGURE 1

Fig. 1. Distribution of antibiotic resistance among clinical isolates under aerobic and anaerobic conditions. Ciprofloxacin (CIP; **a**), Azithromycin (AZI; **b**), and Doxycycline (DOX; **c**). Resistance was determined by MIC under aerobic (green) and anaerobic conditions (blue). Data are from 67 human-shed *V. cholerae* isolates. Dotted line is the breakpoint for resistance per CLSI standards (CIP = 2 µg/ml; AZI = 4 µg/ml; DOX = 16 µg/ml). “***” represents a significant difference in the frequency of isolates identified as resistant to ciprofloxacin and azithromycin by McNemar’s test (both $p < 0.001$). S=sensitive. R = Resistant.

FIGURE 2

Fig. 2. AMR phenotypes and known AMR genetic elements in human-shed *V. cholerae* isolates. a. Proportional Venn diagram (Euler) of AMR phenotypes to azithromycin (AZI), doxycycline (DOX) and/or ciprofloxacin (CIP) under aerobic (left) and anaerobic conditions (right). **b.** Distribution of specific known AMR genetic elements by proportional Venn diagram (Euler; left) and bar chart (right). AMR genetic elements to other antibiotics are not shown.

472 **FIGURE 3**

473 **Fig. 3. Correlations among *V. cholerae* growth phenotypes at different concentration of antibiotics**
474 **and respiratory conditions.** Correlations of *V. cholerae* growth phenotypes (AUC) to ciprofloxacin (CIP;
475 **a**), azithromycin (AZI; **b**), and doxycycline (DOX; **c**) at different antibiotic concentrations under aerobic
476 and anaerobic conditions (e.g. "Anaerobic-0.06"). Heatmaps show correlation coefficients (scale bar is to
477 right).
478
479

480 **FIGURE 4**

Fig. 4. Distribution of AMR genes associated with AMR growth phenotypes at different concentrations of antibiotics under aerobic and anaerobic conditions. Venn diagrams show the overlap between genes associated with (a) ciprofloxacin (CIP) resistance under aerobic vs. anaerobic conditions, (b) ciprofloxacin at different concentrations (μg/ml) under aerobic conditions, (c) ciprofloxacin at different concentrations (μg/ml) under anaerobic conditions, and (d) doxycycline at different concentrations (μg/ml) under anaerobic conditions.

	CIP	NAL	MET	TET	DOX	BAC	AMO	AZI	ERY	CEF	Detected (N)
EN126	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	-	-	6
EN160	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	-	-	-	6
EN127	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	5
EN129	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	5
EN135	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	5
EN149	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	5
EN153	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	5
EN162	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	5
EN164	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	5
EN166	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	5
EN168	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	5
EN178	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	5
EN182	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	5
EN183	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	5
EN185	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	5
EN188	+	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	5
EN071	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	4
EN078	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	4
EN092	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
EN125	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	4
EN143	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	4
EN144	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
EN145	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	4
EN148	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	4
EN150	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	4
EN155	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	4
EN156	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	4
EN159	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	4
EN165	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	4
EN167	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	4
EN169	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	4
EN171	+	-	+	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	4
EN174	+	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	4
EN181	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	4
EN184	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
EN189	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	4
EN018	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	3
EN026	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	3
EN027	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	3
EN095	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	3
EN096	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	3
EN133	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
EN134	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
EN141	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	3
EN147	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	3
EN191	+	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	3
EN072	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
EN173	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
EN137	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
EN146	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
EN132	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0
Detected (N)	48	41	37	24	24	22	2	0	0	0	198 total detected
Positive (%)	94	80	73	47	47	43	4	0	0	0	98% with antibiotic(s)

Fig. 5. Antibiotic detection in stool supernatants by mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS). Green with "+" = Detected. White with "-" = not detected. CIP= Ciprofloxacin, NAL = Nalidixic acid, MET = metronidazole, TET = tetracycline, DOX = Doxycycline, BAC = Sulfamethoxazole and/or Trimethoprim, AMO = Amoxicillin, ERY = Erythromycin, CEF = Ceftriaxone. Stool supernatants were not available for EN79,80,86,88,100,103,109,116-120, 123, 124, 130, 131.

TABLE

Table 1. Identification of genetic elements by GWAS that associate with AMR.

Condition	Outcome ^b	Antibiotic Concentration (µg/ml)				
Ciprofloxacin ^a		CIP4	CIP1	CIP0.5	CIP0.25	CIP0.13
Aerobic	Heritability (h ²)	0.99	0.73	0.60	0.74	0.92
	Associated genes	0	11	9	2	6
Anaerobic	Heritability (h ²)	0.81	0.73	0.72	0.72	0.87
	Associated genes	8	8	8	10	4
Azithromycin ^a		AZI16	AZI8	AZI4	AZI2	AZI1
Aerobic	Heritability (h ²)	-	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.11
	Associated genes	-	-	-	-	-
Anaerobic	Heritability (h ²)	0.30	0.77	0.66	0.38	0.00
	Associated genes	2	1	0	0	-
Doxycycline ^a		DOX1	DOX0.5	DOX0.25	DOX0.13	DOX0.06
Aerobic	Heritability (h ²)	0.00	0.27	0.23	0.30	0.50
	Associated genes	-	0	0	0	0
Anaerobic	Heritability (h ²)	0.10	0.61	0.72	0.72	0.77
	Associated genes	0	23	55	54	17

^a Ciprofloxacin = CIP; Azithromycin = AZI; Doxycycline = DOX

^b Heritability is the proportion of phenotypic variation that is explained by genetic variation. Associated genes are all significant GWAS hits after correction for multiple hypothesis testing ($P < 0.05$ after Bonferroni correction).

505 SUPPLEMENTATRY MATERIAL

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521
522

523 Supplementary Data Files (.csv)

524

- 525 **Date File S1.** GWAS Hits. Ciprofloxacin resistance phenotype. Aerobic.
- 526 **Date File S2.** GWAS Hits. Ciprofloxacin resistance phenotype. Anaerobic.
- 527 **Data File S3.** GWAS Hits. Azithromycin resistance phenotype. Anaerobic.
- 528 **Data File S4.** GWAS Hits. Doxycycline resistance phenotype. Anaerobic.

529

Supplementary Table 1. Reference strains and clinical isolates

	Strain ^a	Aerobic ^b			Anaerobic ^b			Source ^c
		CIP ^R	AZI ^R	DOC ^R	CIP ^R	AZI ^R	DOX ^R	
<u>Reference</u>	E7946	+	-	-	+	-	-	(1)
<u>Clinical Isolates</u>								
EN018	L_EN1286	-	-	-	-	+	-	(2)
EN026	L_EN1291	-	-	-	-	+	-	(2)
EN027	L_EN1292	-	-	-	-	+	-	(2)
EN071	L_EN1300	+	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN072	L_EN1301	-	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN078	L_EN1303	+	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN079	L_EN1304	-	+	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN080	L_EN1305	+	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN086	L_EN1307	+	+	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN088	L_EN1308	+	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN092	L_EN1310	+	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN095	L_EN1312	+	+	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN096	L_EN1313	+	+	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN100	L_EN1314	+	+	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN103	L_EN1315	-	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN109	L_EN1319	-	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN116	L_EN1325	-	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN117	L_EN1326	-	-	-	-	+	-	(2)
EN118	L_EN1327	-	+	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN119	L_EN1328	+	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN120	L_EN1329	-	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN123	L_EN1330	-	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN124	L_EN1331	+	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN125	L_EN1332	+	+	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN126	L_EN1333	+	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN127	L_EN1334	+	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN129	L_EN1335	-	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN130	L_EN1336	+	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN131	L_EN1337	+	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN132	L_EN1338	+	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN133	L_EN1339	+	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN134	L_EN1340	-	+	-	+	+	-	(2)

EN135	L_EN1341	-	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN137	L_EN1343	+	+	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN141	L_EN1344	+	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN143	L_EN1346	-	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN144	L_EN1347	+	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN145	L_EN1348	+	+	-	+	+	+	(2)
EN146	L_EN1349	+	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN147	L_EN1350	-	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN148	L_EN1351	-	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN149	L_EN1352	+	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN150	L_EN1353	-	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN153	L_EN1355	-	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN155	L_EN1357	+	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN156	L_EN1358	-	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN159	L_EN1360	+	+	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN160	L_EN1361	+	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN162	L_EN1363	+	+	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN164	L_EN1365	-	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN165	L_EN1366	+	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN166	L_EN1367	+	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN167	L_EN1368	+	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN168	L_EN1369	+	+	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN169	L_EN1370	-	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN171	L_EN1371	+	+	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN173	L_EN1372	-	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN174	L_EN1374	-	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN178	L_EN1377	+	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN181	L_EN1379	-	-	-	-	+	-	(2)
EN182	L_EN1380	-	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN183	L_EN1381	-	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN184	L_EN1382	+	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN185	L_EN1383	-	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN188	L_EN1385	-	-	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN189	L_EN1386	+	+	-	+	+	-	(2)
EN191	L_EN1388	-	-	-	+	+	-	(2)

^a Prefix of "L_" was used to distinguish the strain number in the library from the clinical isolate number, which is maintained to be consistent with prior publications.

^b CIP^R = ciprofloxacin resistance. AZI^R = azithromycin resistance. DOX^R = doxycycline resistance.

^c Sources of strains: (1) Mekalanos, J. J. Duplication and amplification of toxin genes in *Vibrio cholerae*. Cell 35, 253-263, (1983) ; (2) Nelson, E. J. et al. Complexity of rice-water stool from patients with *Vibrio cholerae* plays a role in the transmission of infectious diarrhea. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 104, 19091-19096, (2007).

Supplementary Table 2. Baseline growth parameters of *V. cholerae* clinical isolates under aerobic and anaerobic conditions

Growth parameter ^a	Aerobic median	Anaerobic median	P ^b
K	1.08	0.261	< 0.001
AUC	5.15	1.58	< 0.001
Velocity	0.011	0.006	< 0.001

^a AUC = area under the curve. K = carrying capacity. Media was LB alone without antibiotics. Velocity = growth rate in percent increase per minute at half the carrying capacity.

^b Wilcoxon signed-rank test for growth. Bold = statistically significant (P<0.05).

Supplementary Table 3. Minimal inhibitory concentrations (MICs) for ciprofloxacin, azithromycin, and doxycycline among *V. cholerae* clinical isolates

$\mu\text{g/ml}^a$	Ciprofloxacin ^b		Azithromycin ^b		Doxycycline ^b	
	Aerobic	Anaerobic	Aerobic	Anaerobic	Aerobic	Anaerobic
0.002	0	0	0	0	0	0
0.004	1	0	0	0	0	0
0.008	0	0	0	0	0	0
0.016	2	1	0	0	0	0
0.032	0	0	0	0	0	0
0.063	0	1	0	0	0	0
0.13	0	1	0	0	2	1
0.25	0	0	0	0	7	4
0.5	5	0	0	0	14	9
1	23	2	5	0	38	26
2	35	4	22	0	2	21
4	0	1	23	0	3	4
8	1	56	15	3	1	1
16	0	0	0	4	0	1
32	0	1	2	44	0	0
64	0	0	0	14	0	0
124	0	0	0	2	0	0

^a Concentration of antibiotic.

^b Distribution of MICs for clinical isolates grown under aerobic and anaerobic conditions. Bold text signifies the concentration at which the MIC mode was determined among the clinical isolates.

Supplementary Table 4. Comparison of rates of resistance detected under aerobic versus anaerobic conditions among *V. cholerae* clinical isolates

	N	R ^{Ae} /R ^{An}	R ^{Ae} /S ^{An}	S ^{Ae} /R ^{An}	S ^{Ae} /S ^{An}	OR ^b	95% CI ^b	P ^b
Ciprofloxacin ^a	67	36	0	26	5	27	(4.45 - 1105)	<0.001
Azithromycin ^a	67	15	0	52	0	53	(9.10 - 2132)	<0.001
Doxycycline ^a	67	0	1	1	65	1	(0.01 - 78.5)	1

^a Distribution of paired resistant ('R') and sensitive ('S') phenotypes for isolates under aerobic ('Ae') and anaerobic ('An') conditions.

^b McNemar's Exact Test. Bold = statistically significant (P<0.05)

Supplementary Table 5. Effect of catalase on growth parameters for *V. cholerae* E7946 and EN160 under aerobic conditions

Experiment	Strain ^a	Antibiotic ^b	Catalase ^c	AUC mean ^d	AUC IQR ^d	P ^e
1.	E7946	CIP	YES	41.84	1.76	0.136
		CIP	NO	44.2	0.865	
2.	E7946	AZI	YES	196	3.37	0.533
		AZI	NO	197.5	0.294	
3.	E7946	DOX	YES	308.5	6.32	0.959
		DOX	NO	308.9	4.11	
4.	E7946	NO	YES	317.3	4.65	0.818
		NO	NO	318	5.42	
5.	EN160	CIP	YES	138.4	22.1	0.551
		CIP	NO	126.1	25.2	
6.	EN160	AZI	YES	265.8	7.12	0.571
		AZI	NO	269.9	6.75	
7.	EN160	DOX	YES	280.1	19.3	0.895
		DOX	NO	275.8	21.6	
8	EN160	NO	YES	319.5	11.26	0.092
		NO	NO	326.6	8.78	

^a E7946 (Cip^S, Azi^S, Dox^S) is the reference strain and EN160 (Cip^R, Azi^R, Dox^S) is a clinical isolate.

Biological replicates in experiments 1-3 and 5-7 were 3, each with 4 technical replicates. Biological replicates for experiments 4 and 8 were 9, each with 4 technical replicates.

^b CIP = ciprofloxacin. AZI = azithromycin. DOX = doxycycline. Assays were run at CIP = 0.5, AZI = 2, and DOX = 0.25 µg/ml for EN160; E7946 was run at CIP = 0.002, AZI = 1, and DOX = 0.013 µg/ml.

^c CIP and AZI were tested with 3 biological replicates; DOX with 2 biological replications; LB controls with 9 biological replicates.

^d AUC = area under the curve. IQR = interquartile range.

^e Student's t-test. Bold = statistically significant (P<0.05)

Supplementary Table 6. Comparison of antibiotic resistance phenotypes and known resistance genotypes among *V. cholerae* clinical isolates

Aerobic conditions ^a								
Antibiotic tested	Gene	R/P	R/NP	S/P	S/NP	OR ^b	95% CI ^b	P ^b
Ciprofloxacin	<i>qnrVc</i>	36	0	16	15	31	(4.22 - 695)	<0.001
	<i>gyrA</i>	28	8	12	19	5.4	(1.86 - 17.9)	0.002
	<i>parC</i>	31	5	16	15	5.6	(1.65 - 18.9)	0.003
Azithromycin	<i>mphA</i>	15	0	7	45	83	(11.2 - 1938)	<0.001
Doxycycline	<i>tet(59)</i>	1	0	51	15	0.62	(0.046 - 18.9)	0.566
Anaerobic conditions ^a								
Antibiotic tested	Gene	R/P	R/NP	S/P	S/NP	OR ^b	95% Cb ^c	P ^b
Ciprofloxacin	<i>qnrVc</i>	52	10	0	5	27	(3.53 - 666)	<0.001
	<i>gyrA</i>	40	22	0	5	10	(1.39 - 248)	0.016
	<i>parC</i>	47	15	0	5	17	(2.28 - 416)	0.003
Azithromycin	<i>mphA</i>	22	45	0	0	0.51	(0.0127 - 20.1)	1
Doxycycline	<i>tet(59)</i>	1	0	51	15	0.62	(0.046 - 18.9)	0.566

^a R = resistant phenotype, S = sensitive phenotype, P = gene present, NP = gene not present.

Enumerations include isolates with at least the specific gene named; isolates may have more than one resistance gene (e.g. *qnrVC*, *gyrA* and *parC*)

^b Fisher's Exact Test. Bold = statistically significant (P<0.05)

Supplementary Table 7. Test of association between antibiotic detection by mass spectrometry and AMR genotypes and phenotypes among *V. cholerae* clinical isolates

Antibiotic detection (D) and AMR genotype present (P) ^a					
	D/P	D/NP	ND/P	ND/NP	P ^b
CIP	41	7	3	0	1
CIP + NAL	35	4	9	3	0.334
DOX	16	8	20	7	0.759
DOX + TET	2	0	34	15	1
Antibiotic detection (D) and resistance phenotype (R) under aerobic conditions ^a					
	D/R	D/S	ND/R	ND/S	P ^b
CIP	24	24	3	0	0.238
CIP + NAL	22	17	5	7	0.511
DOX	1	23	0	27	0.471
DOX + TET	0	2	1	48	1
Antibiotic detection (D) and resistance phenotype (R) under anaerobic conditions ^a					
	D/R	D/S	ND/R	ND/S	P ^b
CIP	44	4	3	0	1
CIP + NAL	38	1	9	3	0.036
DOX	1	23	0	27	0.217
DOX + TET	0	2	1	48	1

^a D=detected, ND=not detected, R=resistant by MIC, S=sensitive by MIC, P = Present, NP = Not present.

^b Fisher's Exact Test. Bold = statistically significant (P<0.05)

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