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1	Copper selects for siderophore-mediated virulence in Pseudomonas aeruginosa
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3	Luke Lear ^{1*} , Elze Hesse ² , Angus Buckling ² and Michiel Vos ¹ .
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5	¹ European Centre for Environment and Human Health, University of Exeter Medical School,
6	Penryn, Cornwall, United Kingdom
7	
8	² College of Life and Environmental Science, University of Exeter, Penryn, Cornwall, United
9	Kingdom
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11	*Corresponding author
12 13	Keywords: evolution of virulence, opportunistic pathogen, metal detoxification, pyoverdine,
13	coincidental selection.
15	concluental selection.
16	Abstract
10	<u>A lostraet</u>
17	Iron is essential for almost all bacterial pathogens and consequently it is actively withheld by
19	their hosts. The production of extracellular siderophores however enables iron sequestration
20	by pathogens, increasing their virulence. Another function of siderophores is extracellular
21	detoxification of non-ferrous metals. Here, we experimentally link the detoxification and
22	virulence roles of siderophores by testing whether the opportunistic pathogen <i>Pseudomonas</i>
23	aeruginosa displays greater virulence after exposure to copper stress. We incubated P.
24	<i>aeruginosa</i> under different copper regimes for either two or twelve days. Subsequent growth
25	in a copper-free environment removed phenotypic effects, before quantification of pyoverdine
26	production (<i>P. aeruginosa</i> 's primary siderophore) and virulence using the <i>Galleria mellonella</i>
27	infection model. Copper selected for increased pyoverdine production, which was positively
28	associated with virulence. This effect increased with time. We here show a direct link between
29	metal stress and bacterial virulence, highlighting another dimension of the detrimental effects
30	of metal pollution on human health.
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Introduction

37 Iron is essential for the growth of almost all bacteria as it serves as a cofactor for many enzymes (1, 2). However, as iron most commonly exists in the insoluble form Fe^{3+} it is of 38 39 relatively low bioavailability in the majority of environments (1-7). It is therefore essential for bacteria to actively sequester Fe^{3+} from the environment (8, 9), with many bacteria producing 40 iron-chelating siderophore compounds to do this (10). Siderophores aid iron recovery by 41 forming extracellular complexes with Fe³⁺ which are then taken up by the cell and reduced to 42 the bioavailable form $Fe^{2+}(11)$. The extracellular nature of siderophores means they can benefit 43 44 the group around the producer, with only the producer paying the cost of production. As a result 45 siderophore production is an altruistic cooperative trait subject to social evolution (12). 46 Therefore as increased production evolves under iron limitation to benefit the producer and its 47 kin, genotypes with reduced production can also evolve to exploit these producers and gain a fitness advantage (12). Due to the importance of iron for microbial growth, one of the first lines 48 49 of host defence is to withhold iron from invading pathogens (13). This often involves the 50 production of molecules such as transferrin that bind to iron with very high association 51 constants (6, 13-15). Such nutritional immunity can be overcome by pathogens through the 52 production of siderophores, as their very high iron affinity enables 'stealing' iron from the host 53 (15). Siderophores are therefore an important virulence factor in both gram-negative- (16-18) 54 and gram-positive human pathogens (19, 20).

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56 In addition to iron, siderophores are known to bind to a range of potentially toxic metals (21). 57 Crucially, these complexes cannot passively diffuse into the cell and consequently the metal is 58 detoxified extracellularly (22). As a result, siderophore production has been shown to increase 59 in the presence of toxic levels of a wide range of non-ferrous metals (2, 3, 8, 9, 21). As many 60 of the metal ions that can be bound by siderophores are essential in small amounts, siderophore 61 production is adjusted in response to metal bioavailability (23), with either active uptake of metal-siderophore complexes or other metal chelating compounds used to acquire these 62 micronutrients when they are scarce (7, 24). Adjustments in production can be due to both 63 genetic and phenotypic changes, with genetic mutations dictating the limits of siderophore 64 65 production and phenotypic changes used to regulate production within those limits (25). Although the upper limit of production initially increases with metal toxicity, eventually a 66 threshold is reached as the rising metabolic cost of siderophore production can result in 67 selection for reduced production (8) – analogously to the evolutionary response to iron 68

deficiency (26). This cost is further exacerbated when competitors of the producer benefit from
the siderophore (12). Consequently when there is strong selection for siderophore production,
such as when toxic metals are at high concentrations, per capita siderophore production can be
reduced (8, 26, 27). Phenotypic changes in production occur quickly in response to alterations
in the environment, including the abundance of metals and population densities, and allow the
cost of production to be minimised (22, 27).

75 Despite strong evidence both for siderophores playing an important role in metal detoxification 76 (3, 8, 21, 23) and for siderophore production being an important determinant for bacterial 77 virulence (15, 28, 29), whether the presence of toxic metals in non-host environments affects 78 virulence remains untested. Here we aim to experimentally link the dual roles of siderophores 79 by testing the effects of toxic copper on the virulence of the opportunistic human pathogen P. 80 aeruginosa. P. aeruginosa is of clinical significance capable of surviving in a range of 81 environments including soil, water and fomites in hospitals (30, 31). In clinical settings it is 82 frequently responsible for severe and fatal infections of patients with cystic fibrosis (32), burns 83 (33), and immunosuppressive illnesses (34).

84 The production of the main *P. aeruginosa* siderophore, pyoverdine, has been shown to both increase under copper stress (21) and to be a virulence factor (28, 35). It has also been shown 85 to rapidly evolve (36). We therefore test virulence after both two days (~7 generations) 86 87 and twelve days (~40 generations) (12, 37). To allow us to exclude phenotypic changes to 88 production, at each timepoint (two and twelve days) populations are transferred to a common garden environment (copper free media) for 24 hours prior to assays. By quantifying 89 pyoverdine production in every population before the virulence assay we are able to test 90 91 whether its production is associated with virulence. Moreover, we test if this association is the 92 same across two environmentally relevant copper concentrations that span those found in in 93 agricultural soil (38). This paper therefore provides novel data on the role of metal pollution 94 on bacterial virulence.

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Methods

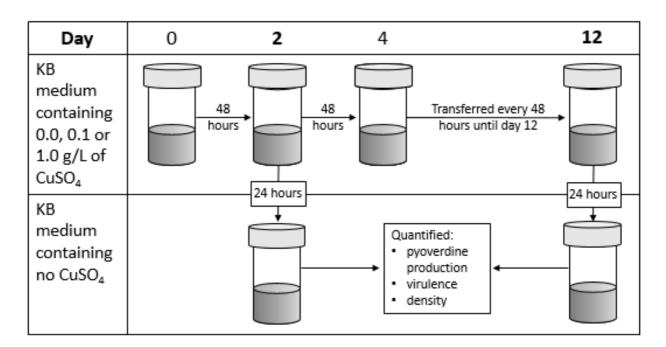
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97 <u>Experimental design</u>

Pseudomonas aeruginosa PAO1 (39) was grown shaking for 24 hours in glass microcosms
containing 6mL of King's medium B (KB; 10g glycerol, 20g proteose peptone no. 3, 1.5 g

100 K₂HPO₄,1.5 g MgSO₄, per litre) at 28°C. After homogenisation by vortexing, 60µL was added 101 to 18 microcosms containing KB mixed with sterilised copper sulphate (CuSO₄; Alfa Aesar, 102 Massachusetts, United States) to final concentrations of either 0.0, 0.1 or 1.0 g/L. Inoculated 103 microcosms were kept static at 28°C for 48 hours before being thoroughly homogenised and 104 60µL (1% by volume) transferred into fresh media (Fig.1). Transfers occurred every two days for twelve days. To control for the physiological effects of copper stress, on days two and 105 106 twelve all microcosms were homogenised and 60µL transferred into a common garden environment (KB medium without copper). These cultures were grown for 24 hours before 107 108 pyoverdine production was quantified and aliquots were frozen at -80°C in glycerol at a final 109 concentration of 25% for virulence assays and to quantify density.

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Figure 1 Schematic of the experimental design used to test whether copper selects for 113 siderophore-mediated virulence. Microcosms (n=6 per treatment) containing KB medium at a 114 115 concentration of either 0.0, 0.1 or 1.0 g/L of copper sulphate (CuSO₄) were inoculated with Pseudomonas aeruginosa, incubated at 28°C and transferred every two days into fresh media. 116 117 On days two and twelve, cultures were transferred into copper free medium for 24 hours before being homogenised, their per capita pyoverdine production quantified and frozen in glycerol 118 at a final concentration of 25%. Virulence and density assays were performed using defrosted 119 120 samples.

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122 <u>Pyoverdine assay</u>

Pyoverdine production was quantified after both two and twelve days. Following 24 hrs in a 123 124 common garden environment, cultures were thoroughly homogenised before 600µL was 125 transferred into a 96 well-plate (200µL into three separate wells). The fluorescence at 460nm 126 following excitation at 400 nm of each of the cultures in the 96-well plate was measured using 127 a BioTek Synergy 2 plate reader (BioTek, Vermont, U.S.A.). Pyoverdine, which fluoresces 128 green, is the only culture component quantified using these excitation and emission parameters, with non-producers giving a zero reading (4). Each culture was measured three times (one 129 130 reading of each of three wells per culture) and the average of three sterile media readings (containing the relevant copper concentration) was used as a reference. The optical density 131 measurements were used to estimate pyoverdine production per cell using: standardised 132 133 fluorescence units / OD_{600} . The average of the three technical replicates was used in the 134 analysis.

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136 *Galleria mellonella virulence assay*

137 To quantify virulence, we used the insect infection model Galleria mellonella (40). Briefly, defrosted samples were diluted 10⁵-fold in M9 salt buffer (3g KH₂PO₄, 6g Na₂HPO₄, 5g NaCl 138 139 per litre) before 10µL was injected into 20 final instar larvae each per replicate using a 50µL 140 Hamilton syringe (Hamilton, Nevada, USA). Larvae were then incubated at 37°C and mortality 141 checked 18 hours post-injection. Larvae were classed as dead when mechanical stimulation of the head caused no response (41). M9-injected and non-injected controls were used to confirm 142 143 mortality was not due to injection trauma or background G. mellonella mortality; >10% control 144 death was the threshold for re-injecting (no occurrences).

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146 *Quantifying Pseudomonas aeruginosa density*

147 The density of *P. aeruginosa* in the common garden environment was quantified by plating 148 onto agar. To do this, samples were defrosted, serially diluted with M9 salt buffer and plated 149 onto KB agar. After 48 hours incubation at 28°C colonies were counted and the number of 150 colony forming units (CFU) standardised to CFUs per mL.

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152 <u>Statistical analysis</u>

The effect of copper on per capita pyoverdine production (standardised fluorescence units / OD_{600}) and density (CFU/mL) of *P. aeruginosa* populations was tested using linear mixed effects models (LMEM) with copper and time as explanatory variables (both factors), as well

156 as their 2-way interaction. To determine how copper affected virulence we used a binomial generalised linear mixed model (GLMM), with number of G. mellonella dead versus alive as 157 158 binomial response variable, and copper and time as explanatory variables, as well as their two-159 way interaction. To analyse the combined effect of pyoverdine production and density on 160 virulence, we used a similar framework and included pyoverdine production, total CFU and 161 time, along with a two-way pyoverdine-time interaction, as explanatory variables. In all 162 analyses, pyoverdine production and population density were log₁₀-transformed to improve 163 normality, and random intercepts were fitted for individual replicates to account for non-164 independency of observations over time.

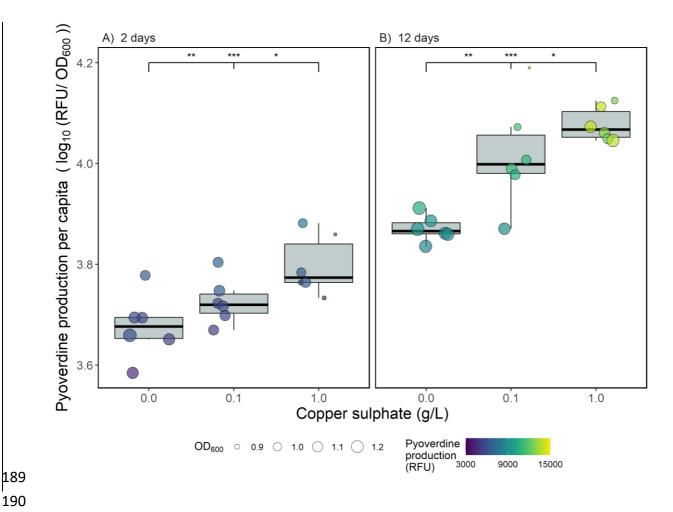
For all analyses, we used the DHARMa package (42) to check residual behaviour, after which the most parsimonious model was arrived at by sequentially deleting terms and comparing model fits using χ -tests where appropriate. These were followed by Tukey post hoc comparisons with the false detection rate due to multiple comparisons controlled for using the Benjamini and Hochberg method. All analyses were carried out in R version 3.3.3 (43), with the lme4 package used for the LMEMs and GLMMs (44).

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<u>Results</u>

174 *Toxic copper selects for increased pyoverdine production*

175 Here we tested the evolutionary consequences of copper stress on *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* 176 by incubating it with copper for either two or twelve days, and then without copper for one 177 day. All results shown here therefore display the evolutionary consequences of copper stress, as the phenotypic effects are removed by the copper-free common garden environment step. 178 In line with previous findings (3), pyoverdine production evolved to be significantly greater as 179 a function of copper concentration (copper main effect: $X^2=35.4$, d.f.=2, p<0.001). This effect 180 was consistent across the two and twelve day treatments; however production was significantly 181 greater after twelve days compared to two days (time main effect: $X^2=161$, d.f.=1, p<0.001; 182 183 Fig. 2). Pyoverdine production was significantly higher in the high copper treatment compared to both the control (two days: p<0.001; twelve days: p<0.001) and the low copper treatment 184 185 (two days: p=0.032; twelve days: p=0.032). Likewise, the low copper treatment was always 186 significantly higher than the control (two days: p=0.004; twelve days: p=0.004). The non-187 independence of observations between day two and day twelve samples accounted for only a 188 small amount of the total variation (SD = 0.029) in this model.



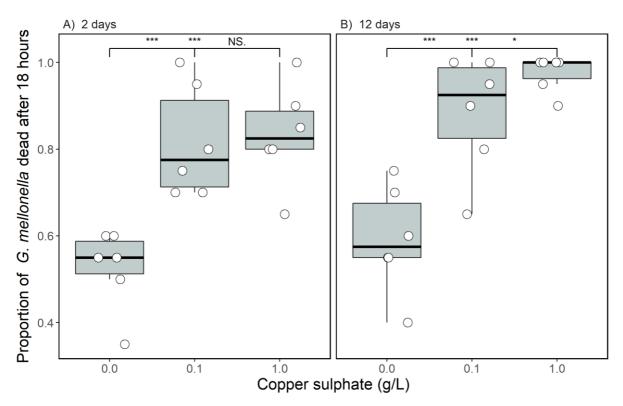
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191 **Figure 2** Per capita pyoverdine production (\log_{10} -transformed standardised fluorescence units 192 per OD₆₀₀) by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* populations after growth in different concentrations of copper for (A) two days + one day in the absence of copper, or (B) twelve days + one day 193 194 in the absence of copper. Circles show individual replicates (n = 6), with colour indicating total pyoverdine production (standardised fluorescence units) and size showing optical density at 195 600nm. Asterisks indicate significant differences between groups (*** = 0.001, ** = 0.01, * = 196 197 0.05, NS = non-significant), with the left value comparing the control to the low copper 198 treatment, the middle value comparing the control to the high copper treatment and the right 199 value comparing the low and high copper treatments.

200

Virulence is higher in populations exposed to copper and this effect increases with time 201

202 To test whether copper stress caused differences in *P. aeruginosa* virulence, populations were 203 assayed using the Galleria mellonella virulence model. Copper significantly increased 204 virulence (copper main effect: $X^2=20.8$, d.f.=2, p<0.001) with the degree to which increasing in time (copper-time interaction: X^2 =6.90, d.f.=2, p=0.031; Fig. 3). After two days, virulence 205 206 was significantly higher in the two copper treatments compared to the control (p<0.001 for both comparisons) but these treatments did not differ themselves (p=0.34). After twelve days virulence was again significantly higher in the two copper treatments than the control (p<0.001 for both comparisons), however the high copper treatment was found to be significantly more virulent than the low copper treatment (p=0.027). We note these treatment effects were found despite the random effect of repeatedly measuring the same population accounting for a large amount of the variation (SD = 0.42).



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Figure 3 The proportion of *Galleria mellonella* dead 18 hours after being injected with 215 216 Pseudomonas aeruginosa grown in the presence or absence of copper for (A) two days (+ one 217 day in the absence of copper) or (B) twelve days (+ one day in the absence of copper). 20 G. 218 *mellonella* were injected per replicate (circles show individual replicates; n = 6 per unique 219 treatment combination). Asterisks indicate significant differences between groups (*** = 0.001, ** = 0.01, * = 0.05, NS = non-significant), with the left value comparing the control to 220 221 the low copper treatment, the middle value comparing the control to the high copper treatment 222 and the right value comparing the low and high copper treatments.

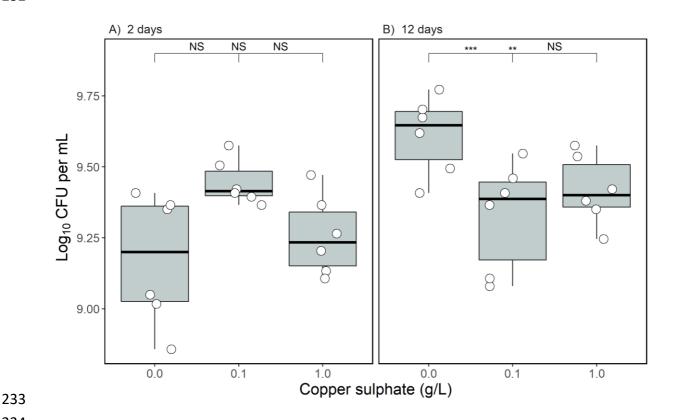
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224 *The effect of copper on population density differs over time*

The effect of copper on population density differed as function of time (copper-time interaction: X^2 =20.5, d.f.=2, p<0.001; Fig. 4). After two days, population densities did not

227 significantly differ between any copper treatment (p=>0.060 for all contrasts), whereas after twelve days of growth density was significantly lower in the two copper treatments compared 228 229 to the control (high copper - control: p=0.013 and low copper - control: p=0.002) but did not 230 differ themselves (p=0.48). The effect of measuring the same populations at two time points 231 did not explain any of the overall variation in this model (SD = 0.0).

232



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Figure 4 The density (log₁₀ CFU mL⁻¹) of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* populations incubated 235 236 with copper for two days + one day without copper (panel A) or twelve days + one day without copper (panel B). Asterisks indicate significant differences between groups (*** = 0.001, ** = 237 0.01, * = 0.05, NS = non-significant), with the left value comparing the control to the low 238 239 copper treatment, the middle value comparing the control to the high copper treatment and the right value comparing the low and high copper treatments. 240

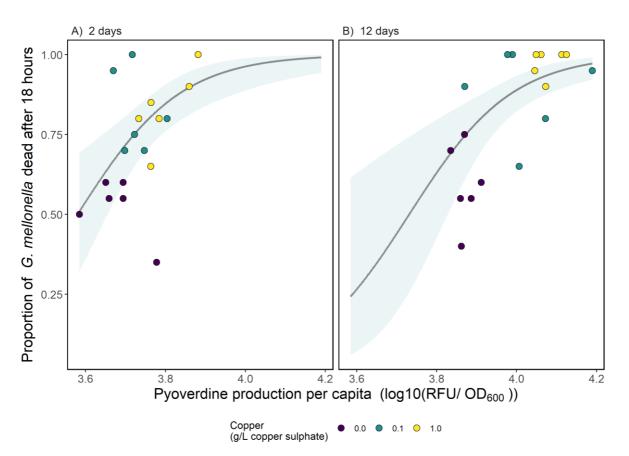
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Virulence is associated with increased pyoverdine production rather than pathogen load 242

Finally, we tested whether increased virulence was associated with increased pyoverdine 243 production by replacing 'copper' as an explanatory variable in our GLMM with per capita 244 245 pyoverdine production and included density as a covariate in this model. Despite there being substantial variation across populations (SD = 0.86) in virulence, virulence increased as a 246

function of pyoverdine production (pyoverdine main effect: X^2 =13.9, d.f.=1, p<0.001; Fig. 5), and this effect did not change with time (pyoverdine-time interaction: X^2 =0.009, d.f.=1, p=0.93) although virulence was higher after twelve days (time main effect: X^2 =5.40, d.f.=1, p=0.02). Population density had no significant effect on virulence (main effect of density in GLMM: X^2 =1.09, d.f.=2, p=0.30).

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Figure 5 The relationship between per capita pyoverdine production (\log_{10} -transformed standardised fluorescence units per OD₆₀₀) and virulence of *P. aeruginosa* populations. Virulence was quantified using the *Galleria mellonella* infection model and expressed as the proportion of *G. mellonella* dead (out of 20) 18 hours after injection. Individual replicates are represented by circles (n = six per treatment); purple points represent the control (no copper) treatments, blue the low copper and yellow the high copper treatment. The line shows the best model fit and the shaded area shows the 95% confidence interval.

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Discussion

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266 Here, we experimentally tested whether copper stress causes the evolution of increased 267 siderophore-mediated virulence in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. We found copper to select for 268 increased per capita pyoverdine production, which resulted in greater levels of death in the 269 Galleria mellonella infection assay. Moreover, pyoverdine production was found to increase 270 with time such that populations exposed to copper for twelve days were more virulent than 271 those exposed for two days. In addition to this overall increase in virulence with time, high 272 copper stress caused significantly greater virulence than low copper stress in the twelve day 273 treatment but not in the two day treatment. As a result the twelve-day high copper treatment 274 demonstrated the greatest virulence. This shows that copper stress increases pyoverdine production and consequently virulence, and that this effect increases with exposure time and 275 276 copper concentration.

277

278 Finding copper-mediated increases in pyoverdine production is consistent with a role of 279 pyoverdine in detoxification of copper in *P. aeruginosa* populations (45). Here we show that a 280 prolonged need for copper detoxification leads to the continued evolution of greater 281 siderophore production. The resulting cost of these genotypic changes to a metabolically costly 282 trait is a likely explanation for the reduced densities in the twelve-day copper treatments. Apart from copper, pyoverdine production has been shown to be up-regulated in response to Al^{3+} , 283 Ga^{3+} , Mn^{2+} and Ni^{2+} (45). This suggests that these metals may also increase *P. aeruginosa* 284 virulence, and may cause selection for increased production over longer exposure periods. 285 286 Furthermore, it is likely that mixtures of metals, which are frequently encountered in polluted 287 environments, might additively select for pyoverdine production and thereby virulence.

288

289 The positive association between pyoverdine production and virulence is consistent with 290 previous findings, including in murine models (35). As well as directly aiding pathogen growth 291 within a host by increasing iron uptake, pyoverdine production can increase virulence by 292 causing the upregulation of additional virulence factors such as Exotoxin A and PrpL protease 293 (46, 47). Finding per capita pyoverdine production to be a better predictor of virulence than 294 population density in this system shows the cost of evolving greater production on density is inconsequential in a host. We note that in addition to pyoverdine production, copper stress has 295 296 been shown to change the expression of over 300 genes in *P. aeruginosa* (48), and it is plausible 297 these also have implications for virulence.

298

299 In addition to *P. aeruginosa*, toxic metals have also been shown to induce the production of 300 (non-pyoverdine) siderophores in other species (10), with siderophore production being shown 301 to increase proportionally with toxic metal pollution in natural microbial communities (9). As 302 the copper concentrations used in this study were chosen for their environmental relevance, we 303 suggest our findings could be relevant to natural communities in polluted environments. We 304 note that remediation techniques, principally lime addition, are used in some metal-polluted 305 areas to reduce their toxic effect (49), and this can lower community siderophore production (50). Extending experiments such as those described here to the level of natural communities 306 307 could shed light on the consequences of metal pollution and metal remediation on bacterial 308 siderophore production and virulence.

309

310 In conclusion, we experimentally show that copper stress increases the virulence of the pathogen Pseudomonas aeruginosa by selecting for increased production of a metal-311 detoxifying siderophore. We therefore demonstrate a direct link between toxic metal stress and 312 virulence in an opportunistic pathogen of significant clinical importance. Furthermore, we 313 show that the effect of metal exposure on virulence increases with exposure time and copper 314 315 concentration. This raises further concern for the effect of ever-increasing metal pollution on 316 bacterial pathogens, and highlights further work is needed to understand the role of metals in 317 bacterial virulence.

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