

In vitro and in vivo activity of new strains of Bacillus subtilis against ESBL-producing Escherichia coli: an experimental study

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1 2	<i>In vitro</i> and <i>in vivo</i> activity of new strains of <i>Bacillus subtilis</i> against ESBL-producing <i>Escherichia coli</i> : an experimental study.
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35 ABSTRACT

Aims: The gastro-intestinal tract is a major reservoir of extended-spectrum beta-lactamase (ESBL) producing *E. coli. Bacillus* spores may be used as probiotics to decrease digestive colonization by ESBL-*E. coli.* Our aim was to assess the *in vitro* and *in vivo* activity of new *Bacillus* strains against ESBL-*E. coli.*

Methods and Results: We screened the *in vitro* activity of 50 *Bacillus* strains against clinical isolates of ESBL-*E. coli* and selected *B. subtilis* strains CH311 and S3B. Both strains decreased ESBL-*E. coli* titers by 4 log₁₀ CFU L⁻¹ in an *in vitro* model of gut content, whereas the *B. subtilis* CU1 strain did not. In a murine model of intestinal colonization by ESBL-*E. coli*, CH311 and S3B did not decrease fecal titers of ESBL-*E. coli*. Ten sequences of putative antimicrobial peptides were identified in the genomes of CH311 and S3B, but not in CU1.

46 Conclusions: Two new B. subtilis strains showed strong in vitro activity against ESBL-E. coli.

Significance and Impact of Study: Despite strong *in vitro* activities of new *B. subtilis* strains
against ESBL-*E. coli*, intestinal colonisation was not altered by curative *Bacillus* treatment even
if their spores proved to germinate in the gut. Thus this work underlines the importance of *in vivo* experiments to identify efficient probiotics. The use of potential antimicrobial compounds
identified by genome sequencing remains an attractive alternative to explore.

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56 Introduction

57 Third-generation cephalosporins and carbapenem-resistant Enterobacteriaceae are critical 58 pathogens according to the World Health Organisation priority list of antibiotic resistant 59 bacteria. The intestinal microbiota is a major reservoir of multidrug-resistant

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Enterobacteriaceae (MDR-EB), and intestinal colonization by MDR-EB is promoted by 60 intestinal dysbiosis (Sorbara et al. 2019). Intestinal colonization by MDR-EB may evolve from 61 62 an asymptomatic carriage to various infections including urinary, gastrointestinal and bloodstream infections. Furthermore, the intestinal carriage of MDR-EB can lead to 63 64 environmental contamination and transmission to healthy or diseased subjects. Hence, 65 treatments to decrease the intestinal carriage of MDR-EB are crucial to limit the global spread of antimicrobial resistance. Various strategies have been assessed but none has proved to be 66 effective so far (Tacconelli & Pezzani, 2019). 67

Probiotics may be considered to restore dysbiotic intestinal microbiota, to treat symptomatic 68 intestinal infections and/or to decrease asymptomatic intestinal colonization by MDR-EB. 69 Probiotic preparations, usually consisting of Bifidobacteria, Lactobacilli, Enterococci and/or 70 Streptococci alter intestinal microbiota (Chae et al., 2016) and showed variable efficacy in 71 72 preventing experimental intestinal infections due to E. coli in animals (Fukuda et al. 2011; Guerra-Ordaz et al. 2014). Besides, their efficacy in humans on improving microbiome 73 reconstitution after an antibacterial treatment has not been demonstrated, and a commercial 74 75 probiotic preparation even delayed and decreased post-antibiotic restoration of the gut microbiota and prevented post-antibiotics reduction of antimicrobial resistance genes (Suez 76 77 et al., 2018; Montassier et al., 2021). Furthermore, few randomized controlled trials have been 78 conducted to assess if probiotics may decrease intestinal colonization by MDR-EB in humans (Newman & Arshad, 2020). Hua et al. found no effect of a commercial probiotic on rectal 79 colonization by ESBL-producing bacteria in preterm newborns, although subgroup analysis 80 suggested an effect in non breastfed patients (Hua, Tang & Mu, 2014). Saccharomyces 81 boulardii and other commercial probiotic preparations consisting of Lactobacillus, 82 Bifidobacterium and Streptococcus (Vivomixx®) or S. boulardii, L. acidophilus, B. animalis 83 subsp. lactis and Lacticaseibacillus paracasei (Bactiol Duo®) failed to significantly reduce 84 intestinal colonization by Extended Spectrum Beta-Lactamase producing Enterobacteriaceae 85 (ESBL-EB) in adult patients (Ljungquist et al., 2020; Wieërs et al., 2020). Hence, there is a 86 need for probiotics that would reduce intestinal colonization by MDR-EB. Bacillus spp consists 87

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of different species of spore-forming soil bacteria that are commonly ingested with vegetables, 88 and reach a concentration of about 104-5 colony-forming units (CFU) per gram of animal and 89 90 human faeces (Elshaghabee et al. 2017). Bacillus spores are resistant to the acidity of gastric contents and are stable for long periods in various environments (Cutting 2011). After 91 92 germination, vegetative cells of Bacillus produce antimicrobial compounds (AMC) that confer 93 an antimicrobial activity against various pathogens (Caulier et al. 2019). Most of these compounds have bactericidal activity against gram positive bacteria but a few, such as 94 95 Gramicidin S and Polymyxins, are active against gram negative bacteria (Mogi & Kita, 2009). Unfortunately, the latter antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) have toxicity and can induce colistin 96 resistance in other enterobacteria (Halaby et al. 2013). 97

Therefore, alternative Bacillus strains that could serve as a source for safer AMCs have been 98 sought (Latorre et al. 2016; Guo et al. 2017; Caulier et al. 2019). Treatment with Bacillus 99 spores has been shown to prevent various gastrointestinal infections, including infections due 100 to E. coli in piglet, chicken, rabbit and mouse (La Ragione et al. 2001; La Ragione & 101 102 Woodward, 2003; D'Arienzo et al. 2006; Tsukahara et al. 2013; Guo et al. 2017). Bacillus also abrogated asymptomatic intestinal colonization of methicillin resistant S. aureus in mice 103 (Piewngam et al. 2018). However, whether Bacillus treatment decrease the intestinal 104 105 colonization by MDREc remains unknown.

Consequently, we searched for new strains of *Bacillus* that would inhibit ESBL-producing *E. coli* (ESBL-*E. coli*) under in vitro conditions that mimic the gut environment. We also characterised their genome and tested their efficacy as a curative treatment of intestinal colonization by an ESBL-*E. coli* in a murine model.

Materials and Methods

111 Bacterial strains and media

112 Clinical isolates of ESBL-*E. coli* were collected at the University Hospital of Nantes. One of 113 them was also resistant to carbapenems through an OXA-48 carbapenemase and was used

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in the *in vitro* culture test and in the murine model of intestinal colonization. The reference
strain for *Bacillus subtilis* was the commercially available CU1 strain (Lefevre *et al.* 2015). For
bacterial numeration, we used CHROMID[™] ESBL agar plates (Biomerieux) for ESBL-*E. coli*,
and LB agar NaCl plates (75 g L⁻¹ NaCl) for *Bacillus and Staphylococcus* spp strains.

118 Isolation of *Bacillus* strains from the environment and identification

Samples were collected from different environmental sources such as soil, mice food, lake and 119 river mud as well as faeces from a variety of organisms (human, mouse, dog and snail). Each 120 121 sample was mixed with water. One ml of each mix was heated at 80°C for 20 min to kill vegetative cells, leaving Bacillus spores. Then they were spread on LB NaCl agar plates. For 122 identification, 16S RNA genes were amplified with universal primers D88 (5'-123 AGAGTTTGATCCTGGCTCAG-3') and F17 (5'-CCGTCAATTCCTTTGAGTTT), and gyrA 124 genes were amplified with primers gyrA-f (5'-CAGTCAGGAAATGCGTACGTCCTT) and gyrA-125 r (5-'CAAGGTAATGCTCCAGGCATTGCT). Sequences were blasted in NCBI. 126

127 Spores production

In order to produce large amounts of spores, an overnight culture of *Bacillus* in 10 ml LB medium was inoculated into a flask containing 400 ml of Difco Sporulation Medium (Monteiro *et al.* 2005). After 3 days of shaking at 37°C, most of the *Bacillus* bacteria were in a sporulated form. The culture was then centrifuged, washed and resuspended in 3 ml of sterile water. Titration of spores was carried out after heating this suspension for 20 min at 80°C and then stored (about 10¹⁰-10¹¹ spores ml⁻¹) at -80° C.

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135 Colony diffusion assay

The *in vitro* inhibitory activity of *Bacillus* against ESBL-*E. coli* was screened as follows. Two
µL of fresh *Bacillus* suspension (10⁶ CFU ml⁻¹) were inoculated on the surface of a dried LB or
minimal medium with 0,2% inulin agar plates where an ESBL-*E. coli* isolate had been spread.
Fifteen clinical isolates of ESBL-*E. coli* were used. After incubation for 24 hr at 37°C, the areas
of inhibition around *Bacillus* colonies were determined. The *in vitro* activity of strains was

classified as strong, medium and weak for inhibition diameter higher than 20mm, between 10and 20 mm, and lower than 10 mm, respectively.

143 Co-culture of Bacillus and ESBL-E. coli isolates in murine faeces

In order to mimic the culture conditions in colonic content (including low oxygen pression), 50 144 mg of faeces from an antibiotic naive mouse were suspended in 1 ml of sterile water and 145 shaken at 20 Hz (Mixer Mill MM 400, RETSCH's) for 5 min to make a homogenous suspension. 146 147 Then, 100 µl of this suspension was mixed with suspensions of vegetative cells of Bacillus and ESBL-E. coli strains (in a 1:1 ratio) to obtain 106 CFU ml-1 of each bacterium (final volume, 1 148 mL), supplemented or not with 0,2% inulin (Bulk powders). Inulin was tested since it is a 149 150 prebiotic which could be used by Bacillus as a carbon source. The 2 ml tubes (containing a 1ml suspension) were shaken horizontally for 24 hr at 37°C (orbital shaker-incubator ES-20, 151 152 Grant bio). Titers of E. coli and Bacillus were assessed after incubation at 37°C for 24 hr and 153 48 hr, respectively. All experiments were done in triplicate.

154 Murine model of intestinal colonization by ESBL-E. coli

155 All experiments were approved by the Animal Experiment Committee of Pays de la Loire (France, authorization number APAFIS#18120) and ARRIVE Guidelines were followed. 156 Six weeks old male Swiss mice (Janvier Labs, Saint-Berthevin, France) were kept in individual 157 cages with free access to food and water. First, intestinal dysbiosis was induced with 158 amoxicillin (0,5 g L-1) in drinking water for 3 days. Pantoprazole (0,1 g L-1) and inulin 0.2% (Bulk 159 powders) were added to drinking water of all mice, from the experiment 1st day and the day of 160 amoxicillin discontinuation, respectively. Pantoprazole was added because it is known to 161 suppress the gastric acid production and to promote intestinal colonization by certain bacteria 162 (Stiefel et al. 2006). ESBL-E. coli (106 CFU) was instilled intragastrically the day of amoxicillin 163 discontinuation. At one day post E. coli inoculation (dpi), 109 spores of Bacillus CH311 were 164 daily administered by intragastric instillation, for 4 days. The experimental protocol was slightly 165 modified to assess activity of Bacillus S3B: amoxicillin was administered for 5 days, and ESBL-166 E. coli was inoculated 2 days after amoxicillin was stopped. Faecal samples were collected 167

daily. Faecal titers of *Bacillus*, *Staphylococci* and ESBL-*E. coli* were assessed by plating
 serially diluted faeces. There were 4-7 mice per group. No mouse was excluded from analysis.
 Researchers were aware of the group allocation during the experiment.

To enumerate the total number of *Bacillus* (spores and vegetative cells) per gram of faeces, faeces were homogenized in sterile water before plating serial dilutions in LB NaCl agar and incubating at 37C° for 24 h. To enumerate the total number of spores, suspensions were heated for 20 min at 80°C and then spread on the same medium. The difference in the number of CFU between the non heat-treated and heat-treated suspensions was considered as the number of spores that germinated. The spores of S3B and CH311 in frozen stocks were used as control to check the efficiency of this procedure.

178 Genome sequencing and assembly

Whole-genome sequencing was performed using the Illumina MiSeq platform, with a paired-179 end library (2 x 150 bp paired-end read mode). Illumina reads were trimmed using 180 Trimmomatic (Bolger, Lohse & Usadel, 2014), quality filtered using the Fastx-toolkit 181 (http://hannonlab.cshl.edu/fastx_toolkit/), and then assembled using the SPAdes software 182 (Bankevich et al. 2012; Nurk et al. 2013). SIS and GapFiller version 1.10 (Boetzer & Pirovano, 183 184 2012; Nadalin, Vezzi & Policriti, 2012) were used to improve the initial set of contigs, and the 185 closest complete genome was used as the reference to order and orient the contigs. The draft genome sequences of CH311 and S3B were deposited in NCBI under accession numbers 186 JAAUXF00000000 and JAAUXE00000000 respectively. 187

188 Genome annotation, comparative genomics and phylogeny

The nucleotide sequences of CH311 and S3B strains were also submitted to ResFinder 3.2 servers (https://cge.cbs.dtu.dk) for identification of acquired resistance genes. All annotated proteins with unknown function were submitted to Deep-AmPEP30 (Yan *et al.* 2020) to predict peptides with antimicrobial activities. The genomes of 423 *B. subtilis* strains were downloaded from Genbank (<u>http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome</u>), redundant sequenced strains and very poor genome quality was removed resulting in a total number of 405 genomes. The 405 *B.*

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195	subtilis	genomes	were	submitted	to	CSIphylogeny
196	(https://cge.cb	s.dtu.dk/services	s/CSIPhyloge	ny/). The core geno	ome polyr	morphic sites were
197	retrieved and	phylogenetic tre	e constructed	l using Fasttree (Pri	ce, Dehal	& Arkin, 2010). To
198	normalize gen	es predictions, a	ll genomes we	ere annotated using F	Prokka (Se	emann, 2014). The
199	pangenomic a	analysis was pe	rformed using	g Roary software (P	age et al	. 2015). The gene
200	homologies be	etween the stra	ins were ass	essed with >98% n	ucleotide	identity and >80%
201	sequence cove	erage cutoffs.				

202 Statistical analyses

Means were reported with standard deviations. Difference in mean titers were tested with t test or ANOVA according of the number of compared groups. The efficacy of treatments was assessed using linear mixed effect models, where faecal titer was the dependent variable, treatment and time being the fixed independent variable, and mouse the random effect. Statistical analyses were performed with R 3.6.3, R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria.

209 **Results**

Identification of Bacillus strains from the environment and screening for inhibitory activity against ESBL-E. coli

Fifty different Bacillus strains were isolated from environmental samples. Based on their 16S 212 RNA and gyrA genes sequences, they were identified as B. subtilis, B. licheniformis or B. 213 214 pumilus. We screened their inhibitory activity against 15 clinical isolates of ESBL-E. coli isolates using the colony diffusion assay. Nine Bacillus isolates inhibited growth of ESBL-E. 215 coli isolates (Table 1). Among these, two Bacillus subtilis strains CH311 and S3B, isolated 216 217 from dog and snail faeces respectively, presented the highest inhibition against 12 or 13 different strains of clinical isolates of ESBL-E. coli. For several strains, inhibition diameters 218 were higher in minimal medium with inulin than in LB (data not shown). 219

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220 In vitro activity against ESBL-E. coli

In order to assess the activity of these strains in conditions mimicking the gut environment, cocultures of an ESBL-*E. coli* and *Bacillus* strains were performed in faeces suspension with or without inulin, and ESBL-*E. coli* titers were determined after 24 hr. *Bacillus* titers increased after 24-h culture in the medium without inulin and remained steady in the medium with inulin (Fig. 1A). However, after a 24-h culture, titers of *Bacillus* isolates in the medium without inulin showed a high inter-isolate variability, whereas they did not when cultivated with inulin.

After a 24-h culture without Bacillus, mean ESBL-E. coli titers increased in the medium with or 227 without inulin. ESBL-E. coli titers after a 24-h co-culture with Bacillus without inulin were 228 significantly different from the control for one Bacillus isolate (isolate Bac2, 7.4 ± 0.3 vs 8.1 ± 229 0.3 log₁₀ CFU ml⁻¹, t test P-value, 0.04, Fig.1B). The combination of Bacillus and inulin was 230 more effective, as 5 among 11 Bacillus strains significantly decreased ESBL-E. coli titers, the 231 latter ranging from 3.7 \pm 0.5 to 4.8 \pm 1.0 log₁₀ CFU ml⁻¹. Regardless of the culture conditions, 232 233 the commercial B. subtilis strain (CU1) did not show inhibition (Fig 1AB). For subsequent in vivo experiments, we selected the 2 most active strains on ESBL-E. coli (B. subtilis CH311 234 and S3B). Of note, these strains also had strong in vitro activity against S. aureus (data not 235 236 shown).

237 In vivo activity in a murine model of intestinal colonization by ESBL-E. coli

Then, we assessed the activity of curative treatment with Bacillus spores on ESBL-E. coli fecal 238 titers. First, we tested the B. subtilis S3B strain. Between the 2nd and the 5th day after starting 239 treatment with Bacillus S3B (i.e. between 3 and 6 days post E. coli inoculation), fecal titers of 240 Bacillus in treated mice exceeded those of control mice by $3.0 \pm 0.2 \log_{10}$ CFU g⁻¹ (P-value < 241 0.00001, Fig. 2A). Although Bacillus titers decreased when Bacillus administration was 242 discontinued, they were still higher than controls at 6 dpi (4.5 ± 0.2 log₁₀ CFU g⁻¹). Germination 243 rates of a Bacillus spores in faeces are reported in Table 2. During the same period, neither 244 ESBL-E. coli or commensal Staphylococcus titers were significantly altered (differences with 245 control, -0.2 ± 0.7 log₁₀ CFU g⁻¹, P-value, 0.82; and -0.3 ± 0.7 log₁₀ CFU g⁻¹, P-value 0.64, 246 respectively, Fig. 2B and 2C). 247

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Second, we tested the activity of *B. subtilis* CH311. Fecal titers obtained during and after treatment with *Bacillus* CH311 were slightly higher than those with *Bacillus* S3B. Indeed, between the 1st and the 5th day after starting treatment with *Bacillus* CH311, *Bacillus* fecal titers were higher by $3.7 \pm 0.4 \log_{10}$ CFU g⁻¹ in comparison with control mice (P-value < 0.00001, Fig. 2D). Meanwhile, *Staphylococcus* faecal titers were lower by $1.3 \pm 0.3 \log_{10}$ CFU g⁻¹ (P-value < 0.00001; Fig. 2E). However, ESBL-*E. coli* titers were not significantly altered by *Bacillus* treatment (difference with control, $-0.5 \pm 0.6 \log_{10}$ CFU g⁻¹, P-value, 0.42, Fig. 2F).

255 Genome sequencing of S3B and CH311 strains

256 Genomes of S3B and CH311 strains were sequenced in order to (i) determine whether they are novel strains and (ii) try to identify the genes responsible for the strong in vitro inhibitory 257 activity against E. coli. Comparative genomics statistics are summarized in table 3. To specify 258 the relationship between the isolates, we performed a pangenomic analysis of the 405 B. 259 subtilis genomes. We predicted a total of 894 orthologous genes representing the core genome 260 (genes shared by all strains) and 46,942 orthologous genes and singletons representing the 261 accessory genome (genes encoded in one or more isolates, but not in all). Strain CH311 262 263 shared 86% of gene content with strain GXA-28 and 85% with strain H19. The strain S3B shared 97% of gene content with strains MSP1 and MSP5. The strains CH311 and S3B shared 264 83% of their gene content. We further analysed SNPs in the core genome and detected 38,016 265 polymorphic sites between all B. subtilis genomes. For strain CH311 we detected 1,521 SNPs 266 with the closest strain H19. For strain S3B we detected 140 SNPs with the closest strains 267 MSP1 and MSP5. We also detected 2,198 SNPs between strains CH311 and S3B. Altogether, 268 phylogenetic and comparative genomic analyses demonstrated a polyclonal population, 269 270 suggesting that CH311 and S3B are phylogenetically distinct from other strains (Fig. S1 available as supplementary data). 271

We then searched 50 antimicrobial compounds (AMCs) encoding genes (Sumi *et al.*, 2015;
Caulier *et al.*, 2019) within the annotated genomes of the two newly identified CH311 and S3B *B. subtilis* strains. Nine different antimicrobial compounds were detected in both strains,

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including 4 genes reported to have a mild inhibitory activity against Gram-negative bacteria 275 (Table 4). Of note, these 4 genes have also been reported in CU1 genome. Then, we pursued 276 277 this analysis and all peptides with unknown function were submitted to the software Deep-AmPEP30 (Yan et al., 2020) to predict potential new peptides with anti-microbial activities. As 278 presented by the table 3, we found respectively 5 and 9 peptides in the genomes of CH311 279 280 and S3B with a probability above 0.7. All of them are different but 4 predicted peptides from CH311 genome are also present in the CU1 genome. Thus sequences of putative antimicrobial 281 peptides only found in CH311 and S3B are presented in the figure S2 (available as 282 283 supplementary data).

284 Discussion

From our environmental sample screening, we isolated new *Bacillus* strains. About 10% of them displayed a strong *in vitro* activity against ESBL-*E. coli* not only in the colony diffusion assays but also in conditions that mimic faecal microbiota. Thus most of the collected strains of *Bacillus* did not show such bactericidal activity, as did the reference CU1 *Bacillus* strain and in agreement with previous reports (Caulier *et al.*, 2019).

290 The in vitro activities of the newly isolated Bacillus in gut mimicking conditions were strongly 291 related to the presence of inulin, albeit Bacillus grew well in faeces without this oligosaccharide. However, without addition of these Bacillus, inulin 0.2% alone was not able to decrease ESBL-292 293 E. coli titers in a suspension of antibiotic naïve mouse faeces. The in vitro efficacy of Bacillus 294 with inulin on ESBL-E. coli may be mediated by the fermentation of inulin by Bacillus, 295 production of short chain fatty acids (SCFAs) and colonic acidification. Indeed, Bacillus produces SCFAs, mainly acetate, and the combination of pH under 5,75 and SCFAs proved 296 297 to be deleterious for E. coli survival (Nakano et al. 1997; Sorbara et al. 2019). However, this 298 mode of action was not predominant in our experiments, as pH after a 24-h co-culture ranged between 6 and 7 (data not shown). Alternatively, inulin may induce the synthesis of 299 antimicrobial compounds by Bacillus as it was shown for the antifungal compound Bacillomycin 300

301 (Qian *et al.* 2015). It is thus likely that the *in vitro* bactericidal activities of *Bacillus* were due to
 302 the production of AMCs.

Despite using inulin and the strains S3B and CH311 that exhibited the most potent in vitro 303 activity, we could not decrease ESBL-E. coli faecal titers in a mouse model of intestinal 304 colonization. Several causes could explain this result. First, inulin concentration in the gut was 305 306 not assessed and we cannot affirm that it was high enough to induce the activity of Bacillus. Second, the intestinal transit time of the mouse is as short as a few hours, which quickly 307 eliminates this genus of the intestinal flora, as shown by the rapid decrease of Bacillus titers in 308 our mice faeces. Third, although the Bacillus strains proved to germinate at quite high level, 309 they are subjected to harsh environmental conditions including low oxygen tension and high 310 faeces concentration. Inhibitors may reduce growth and/or gene expression of B. subtilis in 311 comparison to what we observed in our in vitro experiments. As the bactericidal activity of 312 313 Bacillus on Staphylococci was previously described in mice gut (Piewngam et al., 2018), we tested it as a control of the metabolic activity of our strains in these conditions. Activity against 314 endogenous Staphylococci was found for the CH311 strain, but not for S3B, suggesting that 315 AMCs are differentially expressed in the gut. This result suggests that the lack of activity of 316 Bacillus in our murine model is likely to be caused by insufficient expression/activity of the 317 AMCs. 318

319 Genome sequencing of CH311 and S3B showed that these strains potentially expressed at 320 least nine antimicrobial compounds. Four of these AMCs are reported to have inhibitory activity against Gram-negative bacteria, but these effects are often described as mild and all of them 321 322 are also potentially produced by the CU1 strain that showed no in vitro activity against E. coli. 323 Only two compounds, Subtilin and Kanosamine, were found in CH311 and/or S3B and not in the CU1 strain but they have no activity against Gram-negative bacteria (Sumi et al. 2015; 324 Caulier et al. 2019). Therefore, it was not possible to attribute the inhibitory activity against 325 ESBL-E. coli to any of these compounds, although it cannot be excluded that it could be due 326 327 to different levels of gene expression of the gram-negative-active AMCs. In addition, some Bacillus AMCs likely remain unidentified and those that have been detected using Deep-328

329	Amperso must be investigated. Thus, further biochemical analyses are required to identify
330	the origin of the bactericidal activity of these new strains of <i>Bacillus</i> against <i>E. coli</i> .
331	In conclusion, we described two new strains of Bacillus exhibiting an in vitro activity against
332	ESBL-E. coli. Further studies are needed to elucidate their mechanisms of action and to assess
333	if they could be used to treat infections or decrease colonization due to MDR E. coli.
334	
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341 No conflict of interest declared.

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- 477 Michel Dion
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Figure 1: In vitro activity of Bacillus against ESBL-E. coli. Bacillus (A) and ESBL-E. coli (B)
 mean titers after 24 hr cultivation with or without 0.2% inulin in a liquid medium containing
 murine native faeces (5 mg ml-1). Dark, with inulin; light, without inulin. Error bars, standard
 deviation. Stars show statistically significant differences with control.

Figure 2: Effect of treatment with *Bacillus* on fecal titers of *Bacillus*, commensal *Staphylococci* and ESBL-*E. coli*. Fecal titers of *Bacillus* (A and D), *Staphylococcus* (B and E) and ESBL-*E. coli* (C and F). Mice were treated with spores of *B. subtilis* S3B (left) or *B. subtilis* CH311 (right).
The experimental design is shown at the top of the figure: mice were treated with amoxicillin before being inoculated with ESBL-*E. coli*. Spores of *B. subtilis* S3B and CH311 were inoculated from 1 to 3 dpi, and from 1 to 4 dpi, respectively. Grey lines and circles, control; black lines and circles, *Bacillus* treatment.

Table 1 Bacillus strains: identification and screening for activity against ESBL-E. coli

Strain	Origin	Identification method	Identification	Level of activity against ESBL <i>E. col</i> (number of <i>E. coli</i> strains)*				i	
			-	strong	medium	weak	any activity	total	
CU1	commercial	-	B. subtilis	0	0	0	0	15	
A532	Bogoria Lake	16S RNA	B. licheniformis	0	0	0	0	15	
S2	Snail faeces	gyrA	B. subtilis	2	4	6	12	15	
S3B	Snail faeces	gyrA	B. subtilis	6	3	3	12	15	
S28	Snail faeces	16S RNA	B. pumilus	4	4	3	11	15	
CH311	Dog faeces	gyrA	B. subtilis	10	1	2	13	15	
Bac2	Mice Aliment	gyrA	B. subtilis	4	0	5	9	15	
Bac4	Mice Aliment	gyrA	B. subtilis	2	2	6	10	14	
MD1	Human faeces	gyrA	B. subtilis	2	0	4	6	15	
Mi1	Mice faeces	gyrA	B. subtilis	3	0	5	8	15	
Mi2	Mice faeces	gyrA	B. subtilis	2	5	4	11	15	

⁵³⁵ *Note. Activity was assessed using a colony diffusion assay on LB agar against 15 clinical

isolates of ESBL-*E. coli*. A532 strain was kept to provide a negative control.

538 **Table 2** Percentage of spores and vegetative cells of *Bacillus* in faeces

isolate	CH311	S3B
total cells, CFU/g	$2.4 \cdot 10^6 \pm 1.8 \cdot 10^6$	$1.2 \cdot 10^5 \pm 8.2 \cdot 10^4$
Spores, CFU/g (%)	1.4·10 ⁶ ± 1.4·10 ⁶ (51% ± 12%)	5.6·10 ³ ± 3·10 ³ (5% ± 2%)
Vegetative cells, CFU/g (%)	1·10 ⁶ ± 5·10 ⁵ (49% ± 12%)	1.2·10 ⁵ ± 7.9·10 ⁴ (95% ± 2%)

*Note. Faeces were sampled in mice treated with *B. subtilis* S3B and CH311 3 and 2 days
 after inoculation of ESBL-*E. coli. Bacillus* cells were enumerated in faeces before (total cells)
 and after 20 min heating at 80°C (spores). Vegetative cells were estimated as the difference

542 between total cells and spores.

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Table 3 Genomic and comparative genomic statistics

	CH311	S3B	
Genome properties			
Genome size (bp)	4,190,428	4,038,907	
Number of contigs	5	6	
Total genes	4,377	4,138	
Protein-coding genes	4,209	3,995	
Comparative genomics			
Number of unique genes	48	8	
Closest genomes (Number of SNPs ; % of shared orthologous genes)	H19 strain (1,521 SNPs ; 85.8%)	MSP1 and MSP5 strains (140 SNPs ; 97,4%)	
Genome annotation			
Number of genes with unknown function	712	552	
Number of predicted antimicrobial peptides with Deep-AmPEP30, product probability > 0.7	5	9	
Predicted antibiotic resistance genes (Phenotype)	<i>mph</i> (K) gene (spiramycin, telithromycin)	<i>mph</i> (K) gene (spiramycin, telithromycin)	
	aadK gene (streptomycin)	aadK gene (streptomycin)	
	<i>tet</i> (L) gene (doxycycline, tetracycline)		

547 Table 4 Genes associated with antimicrobial compounds in 3 strains of *Bacillus subtilis*

	inhibition spectrum			gene detected in strain			
antimicrobial compound	Gram positive bacteria	Gram-negative bacteria	Fungi	CU1	CH311	S3B	
Subtilin	+		+			+	
Subtilosin-A	+	+		+	+	+	
Surfactin	+		+	+	+	+	
Bacilysin	+	+	+	+	+	+	
Bacillaene	+	+		+	+	+	
Plipastatin			+	+	+	+	
Bacillibactin			+	+	+	+	
Kanosamine			+		+	+	
Bacilysocin		+	+	+	+	+	

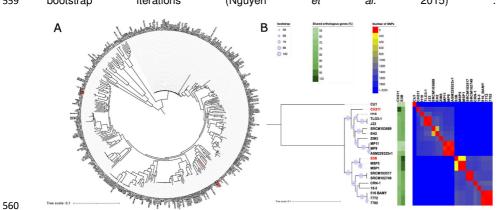
*Note. Ribosomal peptide is indicated in bold character. +, target of the AMC or gene coding
 for peptide or AMC synthesising enzyme.

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552 Supporting information

553 Figure S1: (A) Phylogenetic tree of 405 strains of B. subtilis. The 405 B. subtilis genomes were submitted to CSIphylogeny (https://cge.cbs.dtu.dk/services/CSIPhylogeny/). The core genome 554 polymorphic sites were retrieved and phylogenetic tree constructed using Fasttree. (B) 555 556 Phylogenetic tree of 10 closest B. subtilis genomes to S3B and CH311. According to core genome SNPs analysis, 10 closest genomes were selected for phylogenetic analysis 557 Maximum likehood (ML) phylogeny was constructed using iqtree2 with 100 non-parametric 558 559 bootstrap iterations (Nguyen et al. 2015)



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562 **Figure S2**: Sequences of putative antimicrobial peptides of strains CH311 and S3B that were

not present in the strain CU1, as determined by the software Deep-AmPEP30

564 CH311

565 MTIYEQIKDALKNKINELVSPQEVKKTLQEKYGTNPDSIILSDYCYNRYNKGISFNKHLFEYMN
 566 RSSYKYLGENSLYTGLIFRKSKGEDKEVIVGEWVNGVKSLREASVTNNQINDQAEIISKEQLV
 567 NLYNEYNQILR

568 **S3B**

- 569 1. MIQYASESINLPGEIAFKDVREIFFYQIAKISCFYFLLFCAIFAAVNFINGWPRIVYGSDA 570 LNLFMSMLIIVMSVLFTLLLLLLLVVKFSRAYKKNERMKSKRTYTLNQEGIRICSKKYDLIFNW
- 571 NEITAVFEYKNIFRINTSSSQYIAIPKHFFHSEVEMNRFKEIILKNTETKKLKFKKDQH
- 572 2. MKILGVTGVILICLLAISVLMDMLQGFSLTKAVYNNMSSFKMTTFAEWVVILFFVLVLV 573 REMYVIYKSKKKNP
- 574 3. MTEKKQQNKPNENPEHNDLTDPIPNEELKENMNDEKHKRQQRDNSQSERDYDTK
- 575 4. MFRIFKMSFAVIIIILALIAFNYTEHTSVIQSVMLVFLGAVMFMQGLEERKKENDGSGA
 576 FNIYTAVFVWSVSLIGFTLHII
- 577 5. MVREAAMLHIKEGLEQEFEDAFRQAAPIISGMKGYITHSLSKCMEETHKYLLLVEWE 578 TLEDHTEGFRGSSEYQEWKALLHRFYTPFPTVEHFQDV
- 5796.MLQTPIGRLRTMGFIEGMSLLILLFIAMPLKYWAGLPLAVTIVGSVHGGLFILYLLVLAY580ATFSVKWPLKWSAAGFVAAFVPFGNFLYDRGLRKYK

MNYKGITLLCVMMLLFSAIASFPVSAQAKDQDAGILIIYSTLDGKESSQVKMLDLLAG 581 7 HFTSHVTVKKDLDVEASDFKGKDHVIYYGQTKRKLSKKLLSLISGVKNPVVAIGYNAGQINQF 582 583 SGLSLARKENVFQVHSRSEKADVSLESGLNVLSISGLKGTALYTFKADEGTTHSFIWKTKKG 584 NVYIGLTNLLNDNLIVAKQLREAFGEKAGTTLLYLRLEDISPMSDEKLLLQAGTYLHKRHIPFIL AVIPVYLNPETGDKVYLSDKPKMVKVLKKLQSMGGSIIVHGYTHAYRYSETGEGFEFWDAK 585 ADQPITSGNAEDPPSILEKEQDFPNEQAYHSYLEPFREKEETYTKQKLTRAIEDLTSSGLYPL 586 587 AFEAPHYTMSEYGYQIASQYFTSIFGQVQLSSTTWKTSGAPPFVTAPSMLHGMTLYPETIGF VDTSKQNPLGEMEERISQMIDFEGGVAGGFYHPYLGMKYLPELVDQMERIPDSEWLDLKKT 588 KQTVKTDKVEIHTSGDGTIQVKNGVSPIDEFFDHHRQTPLEKALWILSAVVLLFVIMFVSYTFY 589 590 LRATLKKRIFKERRSLG

- MLSFLVSLVVAIVIGLIGSAIVGNRLPGGIFGSMIAGLIGAWIGHGLLGTWGPSLAGFAI
 FPAIIGAAIFVFLLGLIFRGLRKEAMPWSMKDYPASLKNLEKPVRKKAIDIANAMIDEGYEEGR
 AIPIATSKAKEWAENASTDEIDDFLTHDDETERDADPSSGSGPELMNKAEHVIKHKKGWAVK
- 594 AEGAKRVSEIKDTKKEAIERAKEIAAHKGIEVIVHLADGSVQRKIKTGS

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