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## Vibrio are a potential source of novel colistin-resistance

## **2 genes in European coastal environments**

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#### 24 **Abstract**

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Colistin is a widespread last resort antibiotic for treatment of multidrug-resistant bacteria. 25 The recent worldwide emergence of colistin resistance (Col-R) conferred by *mcr*-1 in human 26 pathogens has raised concern, but the putative sources and reservoirs of novel mcr genes in 27 the marine environment remain underexplored. We observed a high prevalence of Col-R, 28 particularly in Vibrio isolated from European coastal waters by using a unique stock of 29 specific-pathogen-free (SPF) oysters as a bioaccumulator. The high sequence diversity found 30 in the mcr/eptA gene family was geographically structured, particularly for three novel eptA 31 gene variants, which were restricted to the Mediterranean (France, Spain) and occurred as 32 a dgkA-eptA operon controlled by the RstA/RstB two component system. By analyzing 33 29427 Vibrionaceae genome assemblies, we showed that this mechanism of intrinsic 34 resistance is prevalent and specific to the Harveyi clade, which includes strains of Vibrio 35 parahaemolyticus and Vibrio alginolyticus causing infections in humans. The operon 36 conferred colistin-resistance when transferred to sensitive non-Vibrio strains. While mcr-37 and arn-based Col-R mechanisms were also identified, the widespread presence of eptA gene 38 39 variants in Vibrio suggests they play a key role in intrinsic resistance to colistin. Beyond these ancient eptA gene copies having evolved with the Vibrio lineage, we also identified mobile 40 eptA paralogues that have been recently transferred between and within Vibrio clades. This 41 highlights Vibrio as a potential source of Col-R mechanisms, emphasizing the need for 42 enhanced surveillance to prevent colistin-resistant infections in coastal areas.

45 **Keywords.** Ocean, Shellfish, Bacteria, Antibiotic, Polymyxin, Resistance, *Vibrionaceae*.

#### Introduction

The excessive and inadequate use of antibiotics in human and veterinary medicine has led to the spread of antimicrobial resistance genes (ARGs) by creating selective pressures 48 favoring the development of resistant bacteria<sup>1</sup>. If this problem is not addressed, it is 49 estimated that by 2050, antimicrobial resistant bacteria (ARB) could lead to an annual loss 50 of approximately 10 million lives and limit options for effectively treating bacterial 51 infections<sup>2</sup>. 52 The antibiotic properties of cationic cyclic antimicrobial peptides belonging to the group of 53 polymyxins (e.g. Colistin, polymyxin B) is well known, but the use of these peptides for 54 human therapy is limited due to strong side effects. For this reason, limited resistance is 55 reported in clinical settings, promoting the use of polymyxins as a last resort antibiotic for 56 treatments of multidrug-resistant infections<sup>3–5</sup>. Preservation of long-term effectiveness of 57 polymyxins is thus of primary importance for human health globally. Regrettably, the use of 58 colistin has increased as a growth promoter in poultry and swine farms. This has resulted in 59 the rapid spread of colistin resistance in Gram-negative bacteria that are clinically significant 60 on a global scale<sup>6,7</sup>. The global spread of polymyxin-resistant bacteria in clinical and 61 environmental settings has become a major concern in the treatment of multidrug-resistant 62 pathogens in recent years. 63 Polymyxins bind to the negatively charged Lipid A component of lipopolysaccharides at the 64 outer membrane of Gram-negative bacteria<sup>5,8</sup>, then they disrupt the structure of the outer 65 membrane, leading to the increase of cell permeability and subsequent cell death9. 66 Resistance to polymyxins by Gram-negative bacteria can rely on different mechanisms 67

leading to the reduction of Lipid A negative charges thus decreasing electrostatic interactions with polymyxins<sup>10</sup>. In nature, the most frequently observed colistin resistance 69 genes are eptA and pmrHFIJFKLM (also referred to as arnBCADTEF). These genes are 70 chromosomally encoded and catalyze the addition of phosphoethanolamine (PEtN), or the 71 addition of a 4-amino-4-deoxy-L-arabinose (L-Ara4N) to the phosphate groups of lipids A<sup>11</sup>. 72 In various bacterial genera the activation of the eptA and arnBCADTEF expression is 73 controlled by the PmrA/B and/or PhoP/Q two-component systems (TCS) (for review see<sup>12</sup>). 74 Additionally, a plasmid-mediated mechanism of resistance to colistin was discovered less 75 than 10 years ago and involves mcr-1 (for mobile colistin resistance)<sup>6</sup>. It is a rare example of 76 a recent ARG capture and spread. The emergence and rapid spread of mcr-1 among various 77 Gram-negative bacteria has alerted health organizations worldwide (Europe, Asia, North 78 America, and Africa)<sup>13</sup>, and the number of newly reported mcr genes is ever-growing since 79 2015<sup>14</sup>. Furthermore, recent research indicates that the majority of mobile colistin 80 resistance gene variants (mcr1-9) originate from environmental bacteria, particularly from 81 aquatic sources<sup>15</sup>. Similar to *eptA*, *mcr*-1 encodes a phosphoethanolamine transferase (PET) 82 but its expression is not dependent on a regulatory system 10. 83 The rapid spread of colistin resistance from environmental sources highlights the urgent 84 need to enhance our understanding of the prevalence and distribution of colistin-resistant 85 bacteria and their associated resistance genes in aquatic ecosystems. This calls for research 86 that emphasizes the interconnectedness of humans, animals, and the environment (i.e, the One-Health concept<sup>16,17</sup>). However, the marine environment remains largely unexplored 88 regarding antimicrobial resistance (AMR), especially in Europe. Studying AMR in coastal 89 marine environments is particularly important because (i) coastal systems are highly

exposed to human contaminants that may select or co-select for ARGs, (ii) coastal systems 91 are highly interconnected through international trade, which favors the worldwide spread 92 of ARGs, (iii) human populations live along coasts and depend on marine environments as a 93 food source18, which increases the risk of transmission, and (iv) coastal waters and 94 sediments, wastewater discharge and marine aquaculture can act as sources/reservoirs of 95 ARGs and have contributed to localized increases in abundance of ARGs 19,20. Still, the study 96 of AMR in marine waters lags behind in comparison to other environments, and there is a 97 lack of understanding of the role these environments play in the global cycle of AMR. The marine environment may harbor diverse ARGs, flourishing under human-induced 99 pressures. Almost all known variants of the mcr gene that have been reported thus far are 100 from aquatic bacteria from diverse environments 15. Among them, aquatic bacteria from the 101 Shewanella genus are considered as a source of mcr-4<sup>15</sup>. Moreover, mcr-1 was found recently 102 in colistin-resistant bacteria in marine coastal waters from Norway and Croatia, which may 103 constitute reservoirs<sup>21,22</sup>. Some recent studies have also shown the role of variants of the 104 eptA gene in colistin resistance in strains of Vibrio cholerae<sup>23</sup>, Vibrio parahaemolyticus<sup>24</sup> 105 106 Vibrio vulnificus<sup>25</sup> and Vibrio fisheri (Aliivibrio fisheri)<sup>26</sup>. Given the limited data available on the frequency and distribution of colistin-resistant bacteria in marine environments, along 107 with the evidence of colistin-resistant Vibrio species with pathogenic potential in humans 108 and marine fauna<sup>27</sup>, there is an urgent need to increase our understanding of the medical 109 and ecological significance of this phenomenon. 110 To further evaluate the potential role of the coastal environment in the emergence and 111 circulation of colistin resistance genes, we determined the prevalence of *mcr/ept*A genes in

culturable marine bacteria in coastal waters across Europe, as well as in *Vibrionaceae* in 113 general. We targeted three different European areas that are heavily impacted by anthropogenic pollution from oyster farming and tourism: Sylt (Germany), the Ebro Delta 115 (Spain), and Thau Lagoon (France). We characterized the prevalence, diversity, and 116 distribution of mcr/eptA by using a unique stock of SPF-oysters as bioaccumulators that 117 were incubated in all sites for tracking AMR, as they concentrate bacteria from the 118 environment by filter feeding<sup>28</sup>. Our data revealed an unexpected diversity of *eptA* in *Vibrio*, 119 with a clearly structured geographic distribution of eptA variants across Europe. Functional 120 genetic experiments were used to demonstrate the mechanisms of colistin resistance 121 conferred by the newly discovered eptA gene variants from the Vibrio Harveyi clade. The 122 discovery of highly diverse and prevalent mechanisms of colistin resistance as well as as 123 evidences of recent mobilization in Vibrionaceae highlights the underestimated risk of the 124 emergence of colistin resistance in European coastal environments and warrants further 125 investigation. 126

#### 128 Results

Colistin-resistant bacteria are abundant in oysters in European coastal environments. 129 To estimate the prevalence of colistin resistance (Col-R) in culturable marine bacteria from 130 European coastal ecosystems, we immersed SPF-oysters in three sites either containing 131 natural beds (Sylt, Germany), or oyster farms (Ebro, Spain and Thau, France). After 2-3 132 weeks, marine bacteria isolated from the SPF-oysters, on either marine agar or Thiosulfate 133 Citrate Bile Salts Sucrose (TCBS) agar at 20°C or 37°C, were tested for Col-R using a 134 135 microtiter plate assay. Bacteria isolated on marine agar showed frequent resistance to colistin with a minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) > 5  $\mu$ g/ml in Zobell medium, which 136 mimics the composition of seawater (Table 1). Out of 87 bacterial isolates from Thau 137 (France), 28 (32.1%) were Col-R. Most of these Col-R isolates (27/28) were isolated at 37°C. 138 In Ebro (Spain), 17/140 isolates were Col-R (12.1%) and most of them (11/17) were isolated 139 at 37°C. In Sylt (Germany), 37/51 isolates were Col-R (72.5%), and most of them (23/37) 140 were isolated at 37°C (Table 1, Fig. S1). Col-R phenotypes were even more prevalent among 141 bacteria isolated on TCBS (selective for Vibrio). Out of the 52 isolates obtained on TCBS from 142 143 Thau samples, 16 (30.8%) were Col-R. Among them, 11/16 were isolated at 20°C and 5/16 were isolated at 37°C. In Ebro, 11 out of 44 isolates (25%) were Col-R. Among them, 5/11 144 145 were isolated at 20°C and 6/11 were isolated at 37°C. In Sylt, most isolates (41/45; 91.1%) were Col-R; all of them were isolated at 20°C (no bacterial isolates at 37°C) (Table 1). Overall, 146 our sampling highlighted a remarkable prevalence of colistin resistant isolates in culturable 147 bacteria accumulating in oysters immersed in European coastal waters, particularly in North 148 Germany (general linear model,  $p = 1.5 \times 10^{-5}$ ). In France and Spain, the percentage was 149 particularly high in bacteria isolated at 37°C ( $p=3.8 \times 10^{-5}$ ). There was also a clear effect of 150

the isolation on TCBS medium ( $p=7.7 \times 10^{-3}$ ), suggesting higher Col-R prevalence in *Vibrio* (Fig. S1).

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154 **High diversity of mcr/eptA genes in oysters in European coastal systems.** To capture the diversity of mcr/eptA resistance genes circulating in culturable bacteria from European 155 marine coastal systems, pool-sequencing was performed on a total of 394 bacterial isolates 156 pooled by site and isolation conditions (culture medium, temperature) with an average 157 number of 4.10<sup>7</sup> reads per pool (99 to 149 strains per sampling site; see Table S1). A total of 158 53 complete unique nucleotide sequences related to mcr/eptA were found in the contigs 159 from the pool-sequencing after Prokka annotations (Table S1 and S2). Among them, 31 and 160 22 sequences were carried by bacteria isolated on either marine agar or TCBS, respectively (Table S1). The diversity of the Mcr/EptA amino acid sequences was studied by 162 reconstructing their molecular phylogeny. Amino acid sequences deduced from the pool 163 sequencing were compared to the 104 Mcr-1 to -10 amino acid sequences present in the 164 CARD database. The whole set of sequences was also used to identify Mcr/EptA sequences 165 encoded in the 29427 Vibrionaceae genome assemblies found in GenBank. A total of 166 27921/29427 genomes encoded at least one Mcr/EptA, representing 4075 distinct amino 167 acid sequences among 31813 protein hits, which were included in the analysis. EptA and Mcr 168 sequences could clearly be distinguished based on the molecular phylogeny of their deduced 169 amino acid sequences (Fig. 1). 170 The EptA clade gathered a highly diversified set of sequences from *Vibrionaceae*, including the four previously characterized EptA from *V. cholerae*<sup>23</sup>, *V. parahaemolyticus*<sup>24</sup>, *V.* 

*vulnificus*<sup>25</sup> and *V. fisheri*<sup>26</sup> (Fig. 1). Most of the sequences from the pool-sequencing (42/53) 173 were assigned to EptA (83.87% and 77.27% of the sequences from bacteria isolated on marine agar and on Vibrio-selective TCBS medium, respectively) (Fig. S2, Tables S3). They 175 were only found in Vibrionaceae (in genera Vibrio, Photobacterium, Allivibrio) based on 176 protein sequence similarity (more than 90% amino acid sequence identity over their fulllength sequence) (Table S4). Only a limited number of sequences (9/53) were assigned to 178 Mcr (Fig. 1, Table S4); they were found in more diverse genera including Vibrio, 179 Photobacterium, Shewanella, and Pseudoalteromonas (Fig. S2). These sequences encoding Mcr protein variants were previously unreported and the majority clustered with Mcr-4 (Fig. 181 S2). They were far less abundant than sequences encoding EptA protein variants, both in 182 terms of sequence diversity and read counts (Fig 1, Fig. S2).

#### 185 EptA variants specific of the Harveyi and Splendidus clades are dominant in oysters.

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Four predicted EptA proteins (EptA-1 to -4) encoded by unique nucleotide sequences were 186 dominant in oysters, both in terms of sequence diversity (Fig. 1) and read counts (Fig. S2). 187 EptA-1 to -4 sequences harbored the catalytic threonine conserved in EptA orthologs 188 functionally characterized in Vibrionaceae (Fig. S3) as well as in EptA/Mcr proteins from 189 Enterobacteriaceae<sup>23</sup>. EptA-1 to -3 clustered separately from EptA-4 in the Mcr/EptA 190 phylogeny (Fig. 1). Compared to previously characterized EptA variants, EptA-1 to -3 amino 191 acid sequences showed the maximum identity 80.9-83.6 % with VP\_RS21300 from V. 192 parahaemolyticus and 69.9-72.9 % with VVM06 RS15980 from V. vulnificus. Only 58.2-58.7 193 % maximum identity was found with VCA1102 from V. cholerae and 42.5-44.5 % with 194

VF\_A0210 from *V. fisheri*. EptA-4 was far more divergent with only 43.6 %, 55.2 %, 54.6 %
and 56.6 % maximum identity with VF\_A0210, VCA1102, VP\_RS21300 and VVM06\_RS15980
respectively (Table S4).

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EptA-1 (encoded by 10 unique nucleotide sequences), EptA-2 (3 unique nucleotide 199 200 sequences) and EptA-3 (encoded by 5 unique nucleotide sequences) clustered together on the Mcr/EptA phylogenetic tree (Fig. 1). EptA-1 and EptA-2 showed the highest maximum 201 identity (87.2%), compared to a maximum of 78.6-78.8% between EptA-1/2 and EptA-3 (Fig. 1, Table S4). Moreover, their encoding genes shared a common, but previously undescribed 203 genomic environment, consisting of five conserved genes: rstA-rstB-Glycine zipper family 204 protein-dgkA-eptA (Fig. 2B, Table S3). This genomic environment was specific to the Harveyi 205 clade when considering the four genes upstream and downstream of the mcr/eptA 206 sequences in a Vibrionaceae phylogenetic tree, which was constructed from 23,642 genome 207 assemblies with sufficient quality to be included in the MLSA (Fig. 2A, Dataset 1). While the 208 rstA-rstB-Glycine zipper family protein-dgkA-eptA genomic environment was a clear 209 indicator of the assignation to the Harveyi clade, EptA polymorphism appeared to have 210 followed differentiation between species: EptA-1 was found in the species V. harveyi, V. 211 campbelli, V. jasicida, V. owensii, and V. hyugaensis; EptA-2 was found in V. rotiferianus; and 212 EptA-3 was found in V. alginolyticus (Fig. 2A). In addition, a very large cluster of EptA 213 sequences similar to VP\_RS21300 (reference sequence not sampled in our pool sequencing), 214 which clustered with EptA-1 to -3 on the Mcr/EptA phylogenetic tree (Fig. 1), was found in 215 V. parahaemolyticus (Fig. 2A). Finally, an additional EptA sequence found in our pool 216

sequencing, which clustered close to EptA-3 (Fig. 1) and shared the same genomic 217 environment. It matched with *V. alfacsiensis*, also belonging to the Harveyi clade (Table S3). 218 EptA-4 (encoded by 14 unique nucleotide sequences) was the other abundant EptA variant 219 found in our pool sequencing (Fig. 1), but it was a more divergent sequence with only 53.3-220 53.6% maximum identity with EptA-1 to -3 (Fig. 1). Moreover, the eptA-4 genomic 221 environment differed completely, lacking both dqkA and the rstA/rstB two-component 222 regulatory system (Fig. 2, Table S3). Within the Vibrionaceae phylogeny EptA-4 was specific 223 224 to the Splendidus clade (Fig. 2A). Two EptA sequences almost identical to *V. fisheri* VF A0210 (> 98.7 % identity) were carried 225 226 by bacterial isolates from our European sampling and clustered apart from the newly discovered EptA-1 to -4 protein variants (Fig. 1) (Table S4, Fig.1). The remaining sequences 227 did not share any significant conservation of the sequence/synteny with other EptA variants 228 and were present in sequences of Vibrio, Allivibrio and Photobacterium outside the Harveyi 229 230 and Splendidus clades, as well as in the species *Halomonas* (Table S3). 231 Existence of both ancient and mobile eptA paralogues in the Harveyi clade. In order to determine the potential risk of eptA gene transfer from Vibrionaceae, we analyzed the 233 234 genomic environment of eptA genes in 24,243 genomes. The majority of eptA genes were single copy (Fig. S4) (19,118 / 24,243 genomes), located on chromosomes and we did not 235 236 detect any insertion sequences, phage fragments, or plasmid fragments in the proximity of -

4/+4 genes around these single copy eptA genes, supporting the ancient acquisition of eptA

genes in Vibrio. However, we also identified 2,543 genomes carrying 2 copies and 13

genomes carrying 3 copies of eptA (Fig. S4). Some of these additional copies showed sign of 239 recent mobilization as indicated by the presence of transposases/integrases near 137 eptA genes from Vibrionaceae (0.57 % of eptA sequences) and 22 eptA genes predicted to be 241 carried on a plasmid (Dataset1). In species of the Harveyi clade, the conserved eptA copy (e.g. 242 eptA-1, -2 and -3) occurred in a rstA-rstB-glycine zipper-dgkA-eptA genomic environment 243 with no trace of mobile genetic elements in its close vincinity (Fig. 2-3). Some Harveyi species 244 such as V. parahaemolyticus also harbored a second copy of eptA in a distinct genomic 245 environment (cytB-pepSY-eptA-dgkA) with no evidence of mobility (Fig. 3). Remarkably, 246 additional eptA paralogues with transposases or integrases at their close vincinity (-4/+4 247 genes) were found in a cytB-eptA-dqkA genomic environment (Fig. 3). They showed much 248 closer similarity with eptA genes from other Vibrio species (V. cholerae, V. anguillarum) than 249 with the conserved eptA copy from the Harveyi clade (Fig. 3). These results strongly suggest 250 a recent mobilization of eptA paralogues between the Harveyi, Cholerae and Anguillarum 251 clades. Similar events of putative eptA mobility were also evidenced within the clade 252 Fluvialis where putative mobile paralogues were found in a PAP2-dgkA-eptA genomic 253 environment (Fig. 3). Altogether, our results highlight the existence in Vibrionaceae of an 254 ancient eptA gene acquisition having evolved with the Vibrionaceae lineage, and largely 255 conserved across Vibrionaceae species, as well as rarer and more recent eptA gene 256 mobilizations within and between *Vibrio* clades. 257

EptA variants show distinct geographic distribution in Europe. The most common EptAprotein variants identified in our sampling were ancient copies conserved in the Harveyi and

261 Splendidus clades and clearly clustered according to geographic locations (Fig. 1). Specifically, a major Mediterranean cluster dominated by EptA-1-2-3 (Harveyi clade) was observed, which includes sequences obtained from EBRO and THAU. It drives the significant 263 geographic structuring between the Mediterranean and North Sea sites (PERMANOVA all 264 sites:  $F_{2,68} = 3.032$ , P < 0.001, THAU vs. SYLT:  $F_{1,34} = 3.108$ , P = 0.007, EBRO vs. SYLT:  $F_{1,50} = 3.032$ 265 4.799, P < 0.001, THAU vs. EBRO:  $F_{1.52} = 0.900$ , P = 0.513). Within this Mediterranean cluster 266 EptA-1 and EptA-3 were the more frequently detected variants (Fig. S2). Outside this 267 Mediterranean cluster, EptA-4 from the Splendidus clade was the other abundant EptA 268 variant (Fig.1, Fig. S2). However, geographical structuring within EptA-4 was much weaker 269 and no significant association with a given environment was found (PERMANOVA  $F_{2,16}$  = 270 2.888, P = 0.076) (Fig. 1).

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EptA variants from Harveyi but not Splendidus clade are associated with intrinsic colistin resistance. To investigate the potential role of EptA variants from the Harveyi clade 274 in colistin resistance, we conducted whole genome sequencing (WGS) on nine randomly chosen strains isolated from Thau displaying resistance to colistin. Among the selected 276 strains, three strains from the Harveyi clade, Vibrio jasicida TH21\_20A\_0E8, Vibrio owensii 277 TH21 37 OE7, and Vibrio sp. TH21 20A OB7, possessed the eptA-1 gene. Three other strains also affiliated to the Harveyi clade, V. alginolyticus TH21\_37A\_0E12, V. alginolyticus 279 TH21 37 OE9, and V. alginolyticus TH21 37A OE10, carried the eptA-3 gene (Fig. 3, Table 280 S5). To enrich our collection, we explored genomes of Vibrio strains collected over the past 281 ten years in French oyster farms. We identified eptA-1 and eptA-2 in four and two strains of 282 the Harveyi clade, respectively, collected in Thau. We also included two Vibrio strains with 283

sequenced genomes and known pathogenic potential. The first was V. parahaemolyticus 284 strain IFVp22<sup>29</sup>: it harbors the *ept*A gene variant from the species in the Harveyi *rst*A-*rst*B-285 glycine zipper-dgkA-eptA genomic environment. The second, from outside the Harveyi clade, 286 was the zoonotic *V. vulnificus* CECT4999<sup>30</sup>, which harbors a distinct *ept*A gene variant in a 287 carR-caS-dgkA-eptA genomic environment, where carRS (also known as vprAB) is 288 homologous to rstAB. Regarding strains carrying the eptA-4 gene variant from the 289 Splendidus clade, we found the gene variant in four strains collected in Brest (French 290 Brittany), affiliated with *V. splendidus* and *V. crassostreae* (Fig. 4, Table S5). 292 Phenotypes of Col-R correlated perfectly with eptA variants and their associated genomic environment, as observed by comparing strain phenotypes and single genome sequences for 293 the 16 strains harboring eptA-1 to -4 genes (isolated here from ovsters) and the two 294 295 additional pathogenic Vibrio strains (Fig. 4). Thus, Vibrio strains with eptA-1 to -3 were resistant to  $> 5 \mu g/ml$  colistin in Zobell medium, similar to the pathogenic strains V. 296 parahaemolyticus IFVp22 and V. vulnificus CECT4999. In contrast, strains carrying eptA-4 297 298 were susceptible to colistin at a concentration  $\leq 1 \,\mu g/ml$  in the same conditions (Table S5, Fig. 4), suggesting that eptA-1 to -3, but not eptA-4 confer resistance to colistin. Moreover, 299 the dgkA gene is consistently found adjacent to eptA in resistant strains (Fig. 4) and in the 300 Harveyi and Vulnificus clades in general (Fig. 4). In contrast, the dgkA gene is absent from 301 eptA genomic environment in the 4 colistin-susceptible strains harboring eptA-4 (Fig. 4) and 302 in the Splendidus clade in general (Fig 2A). In strains of the Harveyi clade, we also noted the 303 conservation of the rstA-rstB two component signal transduction system (carR-carS in the 304 305 Vulnificus clade), located 1084-bp upstream of the eptA gene and 706-bp of the dgkA gene

306 (Fig. 2 & 4). A CDS encoding a potential glycine zipper protein separated *rst*A-*rst*B from the 307 *dgk*A-*ept*A operon in the Harveyi clade (Fig 2).

## 309 *dgk*A is required for *ept*A-mediated colistin resistance in the Harveyi clade.

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The co-occurrence of dakA and eptA in resistant strains of the Harveyi clade prompted us to 310 test their role in resistance to colistin. Gain of function assays were performed by cloning 311 genes of interest into the pBAD-TOPO expression vector used to transform a colistin-312 susceptible strain of E. coli. Cloning was conducted in E. coli TOPO10. Basically, we cloned 313 the naturally occurring dgkA-eptA-1 and eptA-4 under the control of a pBAD promotor. In 314 addition, we cloned *ept*A-1 alone and *dgk*A (from *eptA*-1) alone under the control of pBAD. 315 Among these four constructs, only dgkA-eptA-1 increased E. coli TOPO10 resistance to 316 colistin (MIC > 16 µg/ml in Zobell medium) upon promotor induction. In contrast, the other 317 three constructs did not impact the resistance of E. coli TOPO10 to colistin (MIC =  $0.25 \,\mu g/ml$ 318 in Zobell medium) (Table 2). The result was confirmed in Muller-Hinton (MHCA) medium (European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing, EUCAST conditions) where 320 only eptA-dgkA-1 expression increased the MIC of colistin from 0.5 to 4 µg/ml (Table 2). This 321 demonstrates that neither eptA-1 nor eptA-4 alone can confer resistance to colistin. Instead, 322 it shows that dgkA and eptA-1 act together to confer Col-R, in agreement with the conserved 323 genomic environment of eptA gene variants 1, 2 and 3 isolated from Mediterranean coastal 324 environments. 325

rstA/B controls colistin resistance mediated by dgkA-eptA in the Harveyi clade. We 327 finally tested the potential role of the conserved rstA/B two-component system in the 328 expression of colistin resistance in Mediterranean Vibrio strains resistant to colistin. For 329 that, we performed rstA deletion by allelic exchange in V. harveyi strain Th15 F5-F11, which 330 harbors the conserved rstA-rstB-glycine zipper-dgkA-eptA1 gene cluster and resists to 16 ug/ml colistin in Zobell medium (Table 2). The Col-R phenotype was significantly 332 compromised in the rstA deletion mutant, since growth was fully inhibited in the presence 333 of 2 µg/ml colistin (Table 2). Moreover, complementation with the pMRB-rstA plasmid was 334 sufficient to restore full growth at 16 µg/ml Colistin (Table 2). Similarly, in EUCAST 335 conditions, the resistance phenotype of the wild-type Th15 F5-F11 (MIC = 8 µg/ml in MHCA 336 medium), changed to susceptible in the rstA deletion mutant (MIC =  $0.25 \mu g/ml$  in MHCA 337 medium) and was fully restored in the rstA complemented strain, but not in a 338 complementation control with gfp (Table 2). To demonstrate that the loss of the resistance 339 phenotype is due to an altered expression of dgkA and eptA in the rstA deletion mutant, we 340 quantified the transcripts of dgkA and eptA by RT-qPCR in the wild-type, mutant, and 341 complemented background. As anticipated, the expression of dakA and eptA genes exhibited 342 a significant decrease in the rstA deletion mutant (Fig. 5). On the other hand, expression 343 levels were not significantly different between the wild-type *V. harveyi* Th15\_F5-F11 strain 344 and its isogenic rstA mutant complemented with pMRB-rstA (Fig. 5). Such a functional 345 complementation was not observed with the pMRB-qfp control plasmid. This demonstrates 346 that *rst*A/B controls the Col-R phenotype of *V. harveyi* Th15\_F5-F11 through the expression 347 of the dgkA-eptA1 operon. 348

Other mechanisms of colistin resistance were found in Vibrio. While the rstA-rstB-350 glycine zipper-dgkA-eptA gene cluster was conserved in 6 of the 9 sequenced colistinresistant isolates from Thau (66,6%), three resistant isolates from our European sampling 352 lacked both the eptA and mcr genes (Vibrio sp. TH21\_20\_0G1, TH21\_20\_0H4 and 353 TH21\_20A\_0C7). In these strains, we detected a well-known colistin resistance mechanism, 354 encoded by arnBCADTEF (transfer of L-arabinose onto Lipid A), along with the phoP/Q two-355 component system known to regulate the expression of arnABCDEFT in a broad number of 356 bacterial species <sup>12</sup> (Fig. S5). These three isolates exhibited an average nucleotide identity 357 (ANI) of 91% with *Vibrio variabilis* strain CAIM1454, a marine bacterium previously isolated 358 from the cnidarian Palythoa caribaeorum<sup>31</sup>. Next to phoP/Q and arnABCDEFT, we further 359 detected a range of other orthologs of known colistin resistance genes, such as pmrA/B (= 360 basS/R), crrA/B, soxR, tolC, kpnE, mprF, and ugD genes in the pool sequencing libraries from 361 Thau, Sylt and Ebro<sup>12</sup>. While we have not functionally characterized these genes, the high 362 prevalence of colistin resistance in the absence of eptA-1-2-3 suggest the presence of a 363 substantial diversity of known and probably also novel resistance mechanisms. 364

#### 366 Discussion

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This study reveals that *eptA* genes, which encode phosphoethanolamine transferases, are both abundant and diverse in culturable bacteria isolated from European coastal environments and are widely distributed across *Vibrionaceae*. We specifically show that ancient copies of *eptA* have evolved within distinct genomic environments specific to each *Vibrio* clade and contribute to intrinsic Col-R in *Vibrionaceae*. In addition, a number of *eptA* 

paralogues exhibit signatures of recent mobility within *Vibrio*, highlighting the need for increased surveillance. These results fill a gap of knowledge. Indeed, while *eptA* genes had previously been described in a number of *Vibrio* species for their role in conferring colistin resistance, little was known about their distribution in coastal environments as well as in the *Vibrionaceae* family.

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In European coastal waters (France, Germany, Spain), eptA genes displayed high diversity, 378 with the most abundant variants found in Vibrio species belonging to the Harveyi and 379 Splendidus clades. Indeed, among eptA sequences, we identified four novel eptA gene 380 variants referred to as eptA-1 to -4 in this study. EptA-1 to -3 were expressed by colistin-381 resistant strains of the Harveyi clade assigned to the species *V. alginolyticus, V. campbellii, V.* 382 diabolicus, V. harveyi, V. jasicida, V. owensii, and V. rotiferianus. In contrast EptA-4 was 383 expressed by susceptible strains of the Splendidus clade (species V. splendidus and V. 384 crassostreae). These two Vibrio clades naturally colonize oysters, and several species such as 385 V. harveyi and V. crassostreae cause infections in oysters<sup>32,33</sup>. A remarkable contrast was 386 observed in the geographic distribution of eptA gene variants at a European scale, with the 387 active forms (eptA-1 to -3) only being detected in the Mediterranean area (Ebro, Spain and 388 Thau, France), suggesting an adaptive advantage responding to specific selection pressures 389 in that environment. However, since these genes were carried by Vibrio of the Harveyi clade, 390 391 which are adapted to warmer seawater temperatures, the distribution of these eptA variants likely reflects the geographic range of Vibrio species along European coasts. This does not 392 rule out the possibility that environmental factors also select for eptA-mediated Col-R in the 393 Mediterranean coastal environments. No division was observed in the geographic distribution of *ept*A-4 (Splendidus clade), which were found in all three European environments along with a number of unknown *mcr* genes. Our data also showed that two weeks were sufficient for oysters to capture a number of Col-R genes specific to each European environment. This finding has implications for the potential transfer of AMR across Europe by oyster transport, a common and still unregulated practice in aquaculture, which has been responsible for the spread at the European scale of oyster pathogens including *Vibrio*<sup>34</sup>.

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In the Harveyi clade, we described a novel eptA genomic environment where eptA is co-403 transcribed with dqkA under the control of the RstAB two-component signal transduction 404 system, whose environmental triggers remain unknown. Co-expression of the dgkA-eptA-1 405 operon was required for Col-R, in agreement with recent results indicating that dgkA is 406 needed for the eptA or mcr-1-mediated resistance to polymyxins in E. coli<sup>35</sup>, as well as in 407 environmental isolates carrying mcr-3 and mcr-7 <sup>36</sup>. The underlying mechanism involves the 408 detoxifying effect of DgkA, a diacylglycerol kinase that recycles diacylglycerol, a dead-end 409 metabolite of Mcr/EptA proteins, into useful precursor molecules. DgkA plays a crucial role 410 in Col-R by preventing the toxicity of Mcr/EptA by-products from inhibiting bacterial growth (for review see <sup>37</sup>). We also showed that co-expression of *dgk*A-*ept*A-1 is controlled by RstAB, 412 which enables bacteria to detect and respond to environmental fluctuations <sup>38-40</sup> and triggers 413 adaptive responses for bacterial survival<sup>39-41</sup>. Until now in *Vibrio*, RstAB had been shown to 414 control motility, adhesion, biofilm formation and haemolytic activity<sup>42</sup>. Whereas in 415 Photobacterium damselae RstAB would not control the eptA-mediated resistance to 416 colistin<sup>43</sup>, the homologous TCS carRS controls eptA expression and Col-R in V. vulnificus<sup>25</sup>.

Unlike in Harveyi, the conserved *eptA*-4 copy carried by *Vibrio* of the Splendidus clade, which 418 has evolved in a completely distinct genomic environment lacking dqkA, appears to have lost 419 its ability to confer colistin resistance, as also reported for eptA from the classical V. cholerae 420 strain O395<sup>23</sup>. The conservation of this gene in the Splendidus clade may indicate that EptA 421 proteins have evolved different specificities/functions along the Vibrio phylogeny, although 422 we cannot rule out the possibility that the gene was not activated under our experimental 423 conditions. 424

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Ancient copies of eptA were found widely distributed in Vibrionaceae suggesting they 426 contribute significantly to intrinsic colistin resistance in these bacteria. First, from our phylogenetic studies on nearly 30.000 Vibrionaceae genomes, we showed that only a very 428 limited number of species (e.g. V. natriegens) have lost this gene during evolution. Second, 429 despite sequence identities as low as 43% across the Vibrio phylogeny, many EptA variants 430 retain a conserved role in conferring colistin resistance, as shown here for EptA-1 from the Harveyi clade in the EUCAST conditions, and reported elsewhere for species of the Vibrio 432 clades Cholerae, Vulnificus, and Fisheri <sup>23, 25, 26.</sup> This gives some hints about the functional 433 role and selective pressures encountered by this gene in nature. In the marine environment, 434 various microorganisms, including bacteria produce cationic lipopeptides. Thus, species of 435 Pseudoalteromonas are members of the oyster microbiota and the lipopeptides they produce 436 (called alterins) are structurally and functionally similar to polymyxins<sup>44</sup>. Moreover, marine 437 animals such as oyster<sup>45</sup> and squid<sup>26</sup> produce cationic antimicrobial (lipo)peptides and 438 proteins as a mechanism of immune defense and to control their microbiota. Like 439 polymyxins and alterins, some of them target the lipopolysaccharide of Gram-negative 440

bacteria<sup>46</sup>. Not surprisingly, Lipid A modifications have evolved as defense mechanisms 441 against cationic antimicrobial peptides, both in pathogens and commensals to circumvent 442 the antimicrobial response of their animal host and competing members of the host 443 microbiome<sup>47</sup>. The importance of *ept*A-mediated colistin resistance in the success of host 444 colonization was clearly demonstrated in the squid symbiont *V. fisheri*<sup>26</sup>. An almost identical 445 gene (>98% sequence identity) was sampled two times here in oysters from Thau and Ebro. 446 It is likely that bacterial species that live in close association with marine animals like 447 oysters, such as Vibrio clade Harveyi<sup>32</sup>, have also developed such resistance mechanisms. We 448 also demonstrated here that conserved copies of eptA have evolved within Vibrio species in 449 specific genomic environments, further supporting the hypothesis of an ancient acquisition 450 of the eptA gene in Vibrio phylogenetic history and little to no interspecific horizontal gene 451 transfer since the differentiation of Vibrio species. The diversity of genomic environments 452 observed for eptA variants is specific to Vibrio clades. As we showed here for V. harveyi, these 453 genomic contexts are key determinants of EptA expression and activity. The presence in 454 many eptA genomic contexts of clade-specific two-component regulatory systems suggests 455 that *eptA* expression responds to distinct environmental triggers in different *Vibrio* clades. 456 457 Importantly, we also evidenced recent mobility events for certain *eptA* paralogues. Indeed, 458 beyond the ancient eptA copy inherited by the majority of Vibrionaceae species, we found 459 that a number of species from the clades Harveyi, Cholerae, Anguillarum and Fluvialis harbor 460 mobile eptA paralogues. Their genomic environment differs from the clade-specific ancient 461 eptA copy, indicating they are likely expressed in response to distinct environmental signals. 462 Although representing less than 1% of the eptA genes identified in Vibrio, the mobile eptA paralogues are surrounded by transposases and integrases and show signs of recent mobility
both at an intra-clade and at an inter-clade level. Remarkably they co-occur with a *dkg*A gene
in their direct neighborhood, suggesting functionality. This deserves particular attention
since such mobile genetic elements significantly increase the risk of environmental capture,
as this happened for the *mcr*-1 gene carried by a plasmid and now circulating in human
pathogens.

#### Conclusion

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Our exploration of the genetic basis of Col-R focused on mcr/eptA genes, which have a putative origin in aquatic environments and currently raise concerns in a clinical context 473 worldwide<sup>48,49</sup>. We found a high diversity of *ept*A variants, but only a limited number of *mcr* 474 variants in bacteria isolated from European coastal waters. An ancient eptA gene copy was 475 highly prevalent in Vibrio supporting a key role in Vibrio intrinsic resistance to colistin 476 including strains from species responsible for most human pathologies (V. cholerae, V. 477 parahaemolyticus, V. vulnificus, V. alginolyticus). Most often, these species harbor a dgkA-eptA 478 operon under the control of a two-component regulatory system (RstAB in the Harveyi clade 479 or its homolog CarRS in the Vulnificus clade). In European coastal environments, the newly 480 described Harveyi eptA genomic environment was found in Mediterranean strains of V. 481 alginolyticus and V. harveyi, which thrive in warm seawaters. The chromosomal location of 482 eptA, the absence of mobile genetic elements at the vicinity of the dakA-eptA genes and the 483 evidence that the eptA gene polymorphism has evolved with the Vibrio lineage argue in favor 484 of a low risk of horizontal gene transfer from Vibrio to other bacterial genera. However, the 485 identification of mobile eptA paralogues in Vibrio genomes should warn us on a risk of 486

mobilization outside *Vibrionaceae*. Further studies will be needed to characterize the risk associated to other Col-R mechanisms present in oyster associated bacteria. In the context of global warming, where *Vibrio* are already causing an increasing number of human disease cases in Europe<sup>50</sup>, we expect colistin-resistant *Vibrio* species of the Harveyi clade to proliferate. A correct understanding of the spread of Col-R and of ecological factors interfering with it in coastal areas, and of its persistence and selection in the oyster pathobiome is fundamental for the preservation of oyster farming as sustainable aquaculture in oceans exposed to global warming <sup>20</sup>.

#### 496 Methods

#### **Animals**

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Specific-pathogen free (SPF) diploid oysters were produced during Spring 2021 from 166 498 wild genitors at the Ifremer hatchery of Argenton (PHYTNESS Ifremer research unit, France), 499 as described in Petton (2011, 2015). Oysters were transferred after 6 weeks to the Ifremer 500 nursery of Bouin (EMMA Ifremer research unit. France), where they were maintained under 501 controlled biosecured conditions with filtered and UV-treated seawater enriched in 502 phytoplankton (Skeletonema costatum, Isochrysis galbana, and Tetraselmis suecica), Before 503 transfer to the field, the SPF status of the animals was confirmed by (i) the absence of OsHV-504 1 DNA detection by qPCR, (ii) a low Vibrio load (~10 CFU/mg of oyster tissue) determined 505 506 by isolation on selective culture medium (TCBS agar). The absence of World Organisation for Animal Health (WOAH) listed parasites (Bonamia sp., Marteilia sp., Perkinsus sp., Mikrocytos 507 sp. and Haplosporidium sp.) was confirmed on histological sections of 114 oysters by an 508 independent laboratory (LABOCEA, France). Oysters were observed to remain free of any 509 abnormal mortality until use. 510

## Study Area, Sample Collection and Microbial Isolation

The same SPF oyster batches (*i.e.* oysters with identical life history traits) were deployed at the juvenile stage (6 months old) in three different European locations used for oyster culture: SYLT in Germany (N 55° 1' 42.539', E 8° 26' 1.953'), THAU lagoon (N 43°26.058', E 003°39.878') in France, and EBRO delta (N 40°37.106880', E: 0°37.318320') in Spain. Two to three weeks exposures in the environment were performed at the end of the year 2021 (THAU: Bouzigues, from 4/10/2021 to 18/10/2021, EBRO: Alfacs bay, from 8/10/2021 to

25/10/2021, and SYLT: Königshafen, from 22/12/2021 to 10/01/2022). No oyster 519 mortalities were recorded during the field exposures. After being exposed to their respective environments, 60 oysters were collected at each sampling site. Tissues were homogenized 521 in artificial seawater (ASW: 400 mM NaCl, 20 mM KCl, 5 mM MgSO4, 2 mM CaCl2) using an 522 ultra-Turrax apparatus<sup>51</sup>. The homogenates were pooled and plated in replicates on TCBS 523 agar (Difco<sup>™</sup>) agar plates for *Vibrio* isolation and on marine agar (Difco<sup>™</sup>) as a non-selective 524 agar for marine bacteria. Duplicate plates were incubated at 20°C or 37°C. Bacteria were 525 isolated after 24-48h (Table S1). After colony purification on Zobell medium (ASW 526 supplemented with 0.4% bactopeptone and 10% yeast extract, pH 7.8), a glycerol stock of 527 each isolate was conserved at -80°C. Up to 48 isolates were conserved per condition of 528 isolation (TCBS 20°C, marine agar 20°C, TCBS 37°C, marine agar 37°C). 529

## 531 DNA extraction, pool-sequencing, and whole genome sequencing.

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532 Bacterial colonies isolated from oyster flesh were cultured overnight in liquid Zobell medium at either 20°C or 37°C, according to their conditions of isolation. For pool-sequencing, 533 bacterial cultures were pooled in equal amounts according to geographic site, culture 534 medium and temperature of isolation. DNA was extracted with the NucleoSpin Tissue kit for 535 DNA from cells and tissue (Macherey-Nagel). For single genome sequencing, DNA was 536 extracted from cultures with the MagAttract HMW DNA Kit (QIAGEN, France). The extracted 537 DNA was quantified using a Qubit High Sensitivity Assay Kit (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, 538 USA), and sequencing was carried out at the Bio-Environment platform (University of 539 Perpignan Via Domitia) using the Nextera XT DNA Library Prep Kit (Illumina) according to 540 the manufacturer's instructions, with 1 ng of DNA. The quality of the libraries was checked 541

using a High Sensitivity DNA chip (Agilent) on a Bioanalyzer. Sequencing was performed on A NextSeq 550 instrument (Illumina) in 2x150 paired-end mode, resulting in an average mean reads of 45,000,000 bp for pool sequencing, and 243 Mb for whole genomes (mean coverage 47X).

### **Bioinformatics Analysis tools**

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**Pool-sequencing** - FastOC was used to check the quality of reads, followed by trimming 548 using Trimmomatic V-0.38<sup>52</sup> to trim leading/trailing bases with quality scores below 30. The 549 recovered reads were assembled into contigs using MEGAHIT V-1.2.953. The Meta-marc tool 550 (database model 3) was then used to identify the contigs carrying the *eptA/mcr* resistance 551 genes (Fig. S6). The contigs recovered carrying the eptA/mcr resistance-genes were annotated using Prokka and predicted coding sequences was specifically re-analyzed for 553 colistin resistance genes using Meta-marc. Sequences annotated as eptA and mcr according 554 to Meta-marc and Prokka, were validated by BlastP against the NCBI and the CARD database 555 V- 3.2.7. Subsequently, we eliminated incomplete eptA and mcr sequences (i.e. partial 556 sequences missing a 5' and/or 3' region) from our analysis. Full length gene sequences were 557 translated in silico and the resulting amino acid sequences were aligned by MAFFT V-7.407 (https://ngphylogeny.fr/tools/). A phylogenetic tree was generated through maximum 559 likelihood analysis of deduced EptA/Mcr amino acid sequences using PhyML V-3.0 560 (https://ngphylogeny.fr/tools/) with the WAG model and 100 bootstrap replicates. Pool-561 sequencing raw data and complete eptA gene sequences were deposited on GenBank under 562 accession numbers SAMN37810832 to SAMN37810840 and OR578979 to OR579029, 563 respectively. 564

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Whole genome sequencing of single bacterial isolates - The quality assessment and reads trimming steps were performed as described for pool-sequencing. The obtained reads were 567 then assembled into contigs using Spades V-3.15.4 within the Galaxy Europe platform<sup>54</sup>. 568 Default parameters were used ('Isolate', 'Automatic k-mer selection, Phred quality offset 570 adjustment, and coverage cutoff in the assembly of individual bacterial genomes). In order to detect the presence of the *ept*A or *mcr* genes, the assembled genomes were annotated in 571 572 MAGe (https://mage.genoscope.cns.fr/). When feasible, a taxonomic affiliation was assigned to the selected isolates at the species level using Average Nucleotide Identity (ANI) and 573 DNA:DNA hybridization (dDDH) percentages. This analysis was conducted utilizing Defast (DDBJ Fast Annotation and Submission Tool) available at https://dfast.ddbj.nig.ac.jp/, in 575 conjunction with genome clustering tools through MAGe and the reference strain genomes 576 obtained from Type Strain Genome Server (TYGS) (https://tygs.dsmz.de/). Raw reads and 577 genome assemblies were deposited on ENA under project number PRJEB67316. 578

Genetic diversity of detected eptA and mcr genes, and their genomic environment - In order to investigate the diversity of the detected eptA/mcr sequences, we conducted a comparative analysis of the amino acid sequences encoded by genes found in the assembled pool-sequencing data. First to determine a sequence identity cut-off enabling the discrimination of Mcr variants, we used a total of 177 mcr sequences sourced from NCBI and CARD databases whose deduced amino acid sequences showed homology with Mcr-1-10 (Table S3). Next, Mcr/EptA sequences were searched using diamond blastp (v2.1.9.163)<sup>55</sup>

against a collection 29244 Vibrionaceae assemblies (GenBank July 2023) using 30% identity 587 and 50% coverage as selection criteria. Multiple proteins alignment was then performed 588 using FAMSA (v2.2.2)<sup>56</sup> and trimmed using trimAI with gappyout method (v1.5)<sup>57</sup>. A 589 phylogenetic tree was constructed using fasttree with LG model (v2.1.11)<sup>58</sup> and visualization 590 was done using iTOL<sup>59</sup>. Additionally, we examined the genomic environment of all eptA/mcr genes from the 29244 Vibrionaceae assemblies. Neighbor genes from +4 to -4 were clustered with the diamond 593 cluster module. After filtering out incomplete environments, i.e. those which lacked genes at 594 +4 or -4 due to contig breaks, the different genomic environments were positioned on a 595 Vibrionaceae phylogenetic tree. For that, a multilocus sequence analysis of Vibrionaceae 596 genomes was performed based on 8 genes recommended by Vibrio Clade 3.060, namely ftsZ, 597 gapA, mreB, rpoA, topA, gyrB, pyrH, recA. Alignment of the 8 concatenated nucleic sequences 598 was done with halign (v3.0.0)<sup>61</sup>. A phylogenetic tree was constructed with fastree with a GTR 599 model. iTOL was used for visualization. ISfinder (https://isfinder.biotoul.fr/blast.php), 600 PlasmidHunter<sup>62</sup> and MetaPhinder-2.1 (https://cge.food.dtu.dk/services/MetaPhinder/) 601 were used to search the insertion sequences, mobile elements and bacteriophage sequences 602 within a 25,000 bp average region surrounding the *ept*A gene. 603 604 Data normalization and statistical analysis - Bowtie2 V-2.5.163 was employed with its 605 default settings to align reads to the gene sequences of interest. This approach provides read 606 counts for each identified sequence (Table S4). To normalize the number of reads of each 607

identified sequence, the following formula was used:

Normalized data= (mapped reads of each sequence / total assembly reads) x 10<sup>609</sup>

Furthermore, we investigated the geographical structuring of molecular diversity in EptA
and Mcr sequences by analyzing the distance matrix underlying the amino acid sequences
phylogeny (see above). This involved conducting pairwise comparisons of distances within
and between sites using a permutational analysis of variance (PERMANOVA). The
PERMANOVA was implemented in the R package *vegan*, utilizing the *adonis*2 function.
(https://github.com/vegandevs/vegan). Initially, we conducted an analysis of variation
using all sites collectively. Subsequently, we performed pairwise comparisons to detect lowlevel structuring.

## 619 Colistin susceptibility testing

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MICs of colistin were determined against Vibrio isolates and recombinant E. coli strains 620 constructed in the present study following the microdilution assay from the EUCAST V14.0 621 guidelines. Colistin sulfate (Thermo Fisher) corrected for activity units was tested in the 622 range of 0.125 to 16 µg/ml, at 35°C, in cation-adjusted MHCA. Each well was seeded with 623 5.10<sup>5</sup> CFU/ml. MIC values are expressed as the lowest colistin concentration tested that 624 causes 100% of growth inhibition after a 18h incubation. In parallel, we performed MIC 625 determination in Zobell medium, which mimics the seawater composition. For quality 626 control (OC), we used Escherichia coli 06 (ATCC 25922) with the colistin OC MIC range 627 provided by EUCAST v14.0 (0.25-1 µg/ml). In the absence of colistin breakpoint for *Vibrio*, 628 we used EUCAST breakpoints for Enterobacterales resistance in tables V14.0 (MIC > 2 629 630 µg/ml).

For a rapid screening of Col-R on 139 bacterial isolates from the Thau lagoon, France, 184 from Ebro, Spain and 96 from Sylt, Germany and control *Vibrio* strains from previous studies (see Tables S5-S6), we used the same liquid broth inhibition assay with fixed colistin concentrations (5  $\mu$ g/ml). Screening was performed in Zobell medium at 20°C or 37°C, according to conditions of isolation. Assays were performed in duplicate wells. Strains were considered resistant when duplicate wells grew in the presence of 5  $\mu$ g/ml colistin (*i.e.* 2.5 fold the clinical breakpoint) after a 18h incubation.

## 639 Cloning dgkA and eptA genes

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Gene variant eptA-1 and the operon dgkA-eptA-1 were amplified by PCR from colistin 640 resistance strain Vibrio owensii Th15 Z G08 (Table S5). The eptA-4 variant was amplified 641 from Vibrio splendidus 7T7\_2. Primer sets used for gene amplification are listed in Table S6. 642 PCR were performed in a 25 µl total volume under the following conditions: initial 643 denaturation at 95°C for 30 s, followed by 35 cycles of 95°C for 5 s, 69°C for 30 s, and 72°C 644 for 30 s and by a final extension at 72°C for 2 min. Amplicons were cloned in the pBAD-TOPO 645 expression vector (Invitrogen, France) under the control of the pBAD inducible promoter 646 and transformed into E. coli TOP10 competent cells according to manufacturer's 647 instructions. Recombinant colonies were tested for the presence of specific eptA and dqkA 648 genes by standard PCR and by whole plasmid sequencing using Oxford Nanopore 649 Technologies sequencers (Eurofins, France). 650

## Heterologous expression of dgkA and eptA genes in E. coli

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Recombinant *E. coli* TOP10 carrying *ept*A-1, *dgkA-ept*A-1 or *ept*A-4 in the pBAD-TOPO vector were tested for colistin resistance. Basically, bacterial cells were cultured at 37°C in Luria-Bertani (LB) broth in the presence of 2 % arabinose to induce the pBAD promoter. Recombinant bacteria were considered colistin-resistant if they were able to grow in LB containing 5  $\mu$ g/ml colistin in the microtiter plate assay described above.

## Generation of mutants in the regulation systems rstA/B

The Vibrio strain TH15 F5 F11 carrying dqkA-eptA-1 preceded by rstA/B (Col-R) was grown 661 at 37°C in LB or LB-agar (LBA) + 0.5 M NaCl. E. coli strains were grown at 37°C in LB broth 662 and on LB medium for cloning and conjugation experiments. Chloramphenicol (Cm, at 5 or 663 25 µg/ml for Vibrio and E. coli, respectively), thymidine (0.3 mM) and diaminopimelate 664 (0.3 mM) were added as supplements when necessary. Induction of the P<sub>BAD</sub> promoter was 665 achieved by the addition of 0.2% L-arabinose to the growth medium and, conversely, was 666 repressed by the addition of 1% D-glucose where indicated. All plasmids used or constructed 667 in the present study are described in Table S5. Gene deletion was performed by allelic 668 exchange using the pSW7848T suicide plasmid<sup>64,65</sup>. To this end, two ≈500 bp fragments 669 flanking the target gene were amplified (Table S6), cloned into pSW7848T as previously 670 described<sup>66</sup>, and transferred by conjugation from *E. coli* as donor to *Vibrio* as recipient. 671 Subsequently, the first and second recombination's leading to pSW7848T integration and 672 elimination were selected on Cm/glucose and arabinose-containing media, respectively. 673 Deletion mutants were screened by PCR using external primers flanking the target gene. For 674 the complementation experiments, the gene was cloned into the stable pMRB plasmid, 675

resulting in constitutive expression from a  $P_{LAC}$  promoter<sup>67</sup>. Conjugations between *E. coli* and *Vibrio* were performed at  $37^{\circ}C^{64}$ .

## 679 RT-qPCR

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In this study, we employed the DirectZol RNA Miniprep kit (R2051) provided by 680 681 ZymoResearch to extract total RNA from Trizol conserved samples obtained from both wild and mutant strains, following the manufacturer's instructions. The extraction process was 682 performed in duplicate for each condition at two different growth stages, specifically the 683 exponential and stationary phases. To eliminate any genomic DNA contamination, the RNA 684 was treated with DNase I. To determine the concentration of the total RNA, we used a 685 NanoDrop spectrophotometer from ThermoFisher Scientific. The cDNA was produced using 686 M-MLV Reverse Transcriptase M1302 (Sigma-Aldrich, France) with 1 µg of extracted RNA. 687 Real-time quantitative PCR (qPCR) was performed at the MGX platform in Montpellier. The 688 MGX platform employed the Light-Cycler 480 System from Roche. The primers used for qPCR 689 are listed in Supporting Information (Table S6). To analyze the relative expression levels, we 690 employed the 2-ΔΔCq method developed by Pfaffl in 2001<sup>68</sup>. For normalization, two genes 691 (6PFK (VS 2913) and CcmC (VS 0852)) were chosen due to their constitutive expression 692 across various conditions in both the RNAseq and qRT-PCR analyses<sup>69</sup>. For our own study, 693 we designed and validated specific primers for these genes on Vibrio harveyi Th15 F5 F11 694 (Table S6). 695

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716

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## 734 Ethics approval

- 735 The animal (oyster Crassostrea gigas) testing followed all regulations concerning animal
- 736 experimentation. The authors declare that the use of genetic resources fulfill the French
- 737 regulatory control of access and EU regulations on the Nagoya Protocol on Access and
- 738 Benefit-Sharing (TREL2302365S/750, ABSCH-IRCC-FR-266230-1).

739

740 Data availability Targeted gene sequences (eptA) and pool-sequencing raw data were deposited at GenBank under accession numbers OR578979 to OR579029 and SAMN37810832 to SAMN37810840, respectively. Genome raw data and assemblies were deposited at the European Nucleotide 744 Archive (ENA) under project accession no. PRJEB67316 (ERR12116510 to ERR12116518) MicroScope plateforme MaGe ("Magnifying available 745 on 746 https://mage.genoscope.cns.fr/. 747 **Code availability**. Software's and databases used in this paper are openly available in Galaxy Open platform hosted by our institute <a href="https://galaxy-datarmor.ifremer.fr/">https://galaxy-datarmor.ifremer.fr/</a>. Specific source codes for antimicrobial resistance gene identification are also available on GitHub 750 751 https://github.com/lakinsm/meta-marc. 752

Table 1. Colistin-resistant (Col-R\*) bacterial isolates\*\* across European oyster farms.

Sampling site	Isolation	No. isolates	No. Col-R isolates	% Col-R isolates
	medium	(20°C; 37°C)	(20°C; 37°C)	
THAU	Marine agar	87 (41; 46)	28 (1; 27)	32.1
EBRO	Marine agar	140 (96; 44)	17 (6;11)	12.1
SYLT	Marine agar	51 (19;32)	37 (14;23)	72.5
THAU	TCBS	52 (47; 5)	16 (11; 5)	30.8
EBRO	TCBS	44 (28; 16)	11 (5; 6)	25.0
SYLT	TBCS	45 (45; 0)	41 (41; 0)	91.1

<sup>\*</sup> Col-R, MIC > 5  $\mu$ g/ml in Zobell medium

755

<sup>\*\*</sup> bacteria isolated on TCBS or Marine agar medium

Table 2. Role of *ept*A variants, *dgk*A and *rst*A in resistance to colistin.

MICs were determined by the microdilution assay in the range of 0.125 - 16  $\mu M$  colistin.

0.5 0.5 0.5 4	0.25 0.25 0.25
0.5 0.5	0.25 0.25
0.5	0.25
4	
	> 16
0.5	0.25
8	> 16
0.5	2
8	> 16
0.5	2
1	1
	8 0.5 8 0.5

<sup>757 \*</sup> cloned from *V. owensii* Th15\_Z\_G08 (IHPE 303)

759

<sup>758 \*\*</sup> cloned from *V. tasmaniensis* 7T7\_2 (IHPE 20)

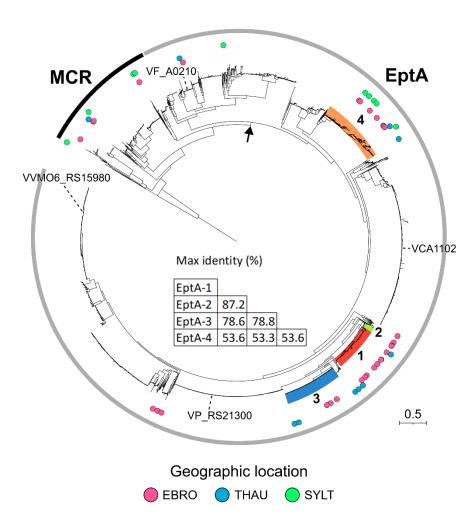


Fig. 1. Clustered distribution of mcr/eptA gene variants across European coastal **environments**. The detected EptA and Mcr variants from the present study are included in 763 a phylogenetic tree together with 4075 distinct Mcr/EptA sequences found in 27921 764 765 Vibrionaceae assemblies carrying mcr/eptA genes. Sequences used as reference are Mcr-1 to 10 sequences found in the CARD database as well as 4 EptA sequences from functionally 766 characterized EptA variants (VP RS21300, VVMO RS15980, VCA1102 and VF A0210). A 767 phylogenetic tree generated from deduced EptA/Mcr amino acid sequences was constructed 768 using fasttree with LG model and visualization was done using iTOL. Corresponding protein 769 sequences were obtained from the pool-sequencing of bacteria isolated both on Marine agar

and TCBS medium in three European regions. See Fig. S2 for an illustration including conditions of isolation and read counts. The node that separates Mcr (outer black arc) from EptA sequences (outer grey arc) is indicated by an arrow. Numbers refer to the EptA-1(red), EptA-2 (green), EptA-3 (blue) and EptA-4 (orange) variants described in the present study. Maximum identity between newly identified EptA protein variants is displayed. The geographic origin of each sequence is represented in by dots colored pink (Ebro), green (Sylt), and blue (Thau).

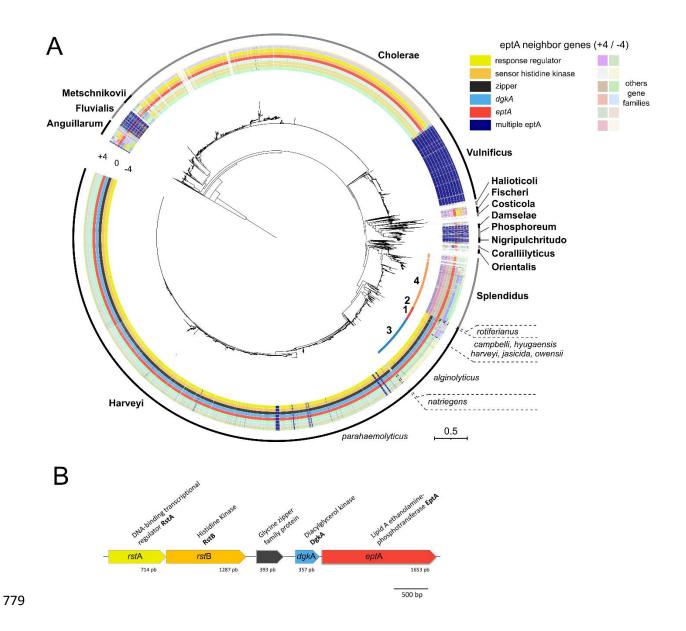
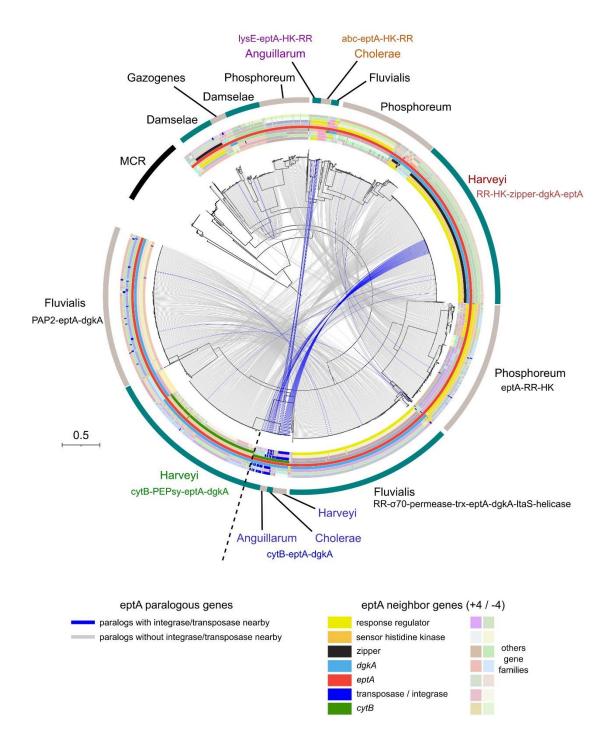


Fig. 2. The genomic environment of *ept*A gene variants has evolved with the phylogeny of *Vibrionaceae*.

(A) Distribution of *mcr/ept*A genomic environments (-4/+4 genes) along an MLST of *Vibrionaceae*. The *Vibrionaceae* phylogenetic tree was based on 8 polymorphic genes *fts*Z, *gap*A, *mre*B, *rpo*A, *top*A, *gyr*B, *pyr*H, *rec*A according to *Vibrio* Clade 3.0<sup>60</sup>. Numbers on the inner circle indicate the phylogenetic positioning of EptA-1, EptA-2, EptA-3, and EptA-4 variants identified in the present study (Table S2). Outer circles show genes in the genomic

environment of mcr/eptA genes (red) with the following color code: response regulator 787 (yellow), sensor histidine kinase (orange), dgkA (light blue), glycine zipper family protein 788 (grey). Other conserved gene families, identified through diamond clustering, are shown 789 790 using different light colors. When > 1 mcr/eptA gene copy were found in Vibrio genomes, their genomic environments were not displayed (dark blue). (B) Newly discovered genetic environment in the Harveyi clade. A rstA/rstB (response 792 regulator/histidine kinase) two component system is located upstream dkgA and eptA. A 793 794 gene encoding a glycine zipper family protein separates rstA-rstB from dqkA-eptA. The figure 795 is based on an *ept*A-1 sequence. 796



798 Fig. 3. Evidence of gene mobilization in eptA paralogues from Vibrionaceae

Phylogeny of *ept*A paralogues for genomes containing multiple *ept*A genes, focusing on the distribution of *ept*A genomic environments (-4/+4 genes). The *ept*A phylogenetic tree was

constructed using FastTree with the LG model, and visualization was performed with iTOL. 801 To simplify the figure, *V. vulnificus*, which contains two conserved *ept*A paralogues (see Fig. 802 S4) was not included. All paralogues are connected by inner grey lines, while inner blue 803 804 lines indicate paralogues associated with integrase/transposase in the -4/+4 environments. The outer circles represent genes in the genomic environment of eptA genes (in 805 red), with the following color coding: response regulators (yellow), sensor histidine ki-806 nases (orange), dgkA (light blue), glycine zipper family proteins (grey), transposases/inte-807 grases (dark blue), and cytochrome B family proteins (dark green). Other conserved gene 808 families identified through diamond clustering are depicted in various light colors. The 809 outer circle indicates the Sawabe clade<sup>60</sup> and provides an environmental summary. 810

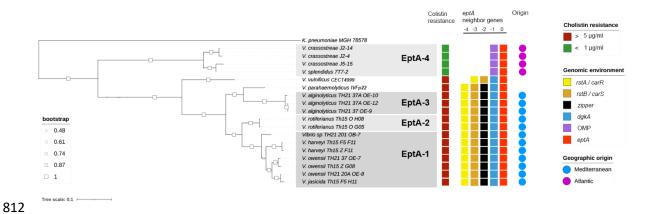
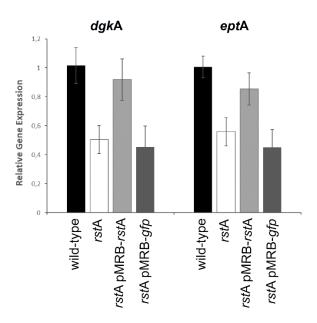


Fig. 4. Colistin resistance correlates with EptA polymorphism and *ept*A genomic environment. A phylogenetic tree of EptA amino acid sequences was generated through maximum likelihood analysis of deduced EptA/Mcr amino acid sequences using PhyML v-3.0 (https://ngphylogeny.fr/tools/) with the WAG model and 100 bootstrap runs. Red and green empty squares indicate strains resistant to 5  $\mu$ g/ml or susceptible to 1  $\mu$ g/ml colistin, respectively, as phenotyped in Zobell medium. Colored plain squares indicate conserved genes present at the vicinity of *ept*A (red): *rst*A /*car*R (yellow), *rst*B / *car*S (orange), *dgk*A (light blue), glycine zipper family protein (grey), *opa* (purple). Numbers indicate the position of the upstream genes relative to EptA.



825

Fig. 5. dgkA and eptA gene expression is controlled by rstA. Expression of dgkA and eptA genes was quantified in wild-type V. harveyi Th15\_F5-F11 and its rstA isogenic mutant. The 827 828 rstA-deletion mutant and the mutant complemented with a pMRB-gfp plasmid showed a significant decrease in expression for dgkA (estimate = -0.511 ± 0.173, t = -2.963, p = 0.021 829 and estimate =  $-0.561 \pm 0.193$ , t = -2.910, p = 0.023) and eptA (estimate =  $-0.446 \pm 0.136$ , t = 830 -3.271, p = 0.014 and estimate =  $-0.553 \pm 0.153$ , t = -3.623, p = 0.008), whereas 831 complementation with rstA restored wild type expression levels (dgkA estimate = -0.0978 ± 832 0.172, t= -0.567, p = 0.589 and eptA estimate = -0.151 ± 0.136, t = -1.109, p = 0.304). Data 833 were normalized using two housekeeping genes. 834

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