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From chemical mixtures to antibiotic resistance

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ABSTRACT

In real environment, it is unlikely that contaminants exist singly; environmental contamination 17 with chemical mixtures is a norm. However, the impacts of chemical mixtures on 18 environmental quality and ecosystem health have been overlooked in the past. Among the 19 complex interactions between different contaminants, their relationship with the rise of 20 antibiotic resistance (AR) is an emerging environmental concern. In this paper, we review recent 21 progresses on how chemicals or chemical mixtures promote AR. We propose that, through 22 co-selection, agents causing stress to bacteria may induce AR. The mechanisms for chemical 23 mixtures to promote AR are also discussed. We also propose that, mechanistic understanding of 24 co-selection of chemical mixtures for AR should be a future research priority in environmental 25 health research. 26

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Introduction

The environment contains a lot of natural and man-made chemicals and/or their degradation products (Backhaus and Faust, 2012). Environmental contamination with chemical mixtures is ubiquitous. For example, in pig manures and manured soils in China, metals such as copper, zinc, and arsenic, as well as numerous antibiotics, are found present simultaneously (Qiao et al., 2012; Zhu et al., 2013). Although most environmental studies focus on one type of pollutants at a time, understanding the toxicity of a chemical mixture is a major challenge in environmental health research (Braun et al., 2016). To address this challenge, in-depth studies of toxicity and risk assessment of chemical mixtures have been emerging, starting from mixtures of metals (Nys et al., 2017; Traudt et al., 2017).

Antibiotic resistance (AR) has become a worldwide concern for public health. Since the discovery of penicillin and other antibiotics, they have been used to treat infectious diseases and have saved millions of lives. Almost in every case, introduction of a new antibiotic was followed by resistance to the very antibiotic (Lobanovska and Pilla, 2017), leading to huge cost of health care and deaths. The genetic determinants of AR, antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs), are found in almost every ecosystem (Su et al., 2017), even in extreme environments. The spread of ARGs in the environment could potentially increase the opportunity that human pathogens acquire AR from environmental bacteria. Exposure to antibiotics also can lead to amplification of existing ARGs by processes such as gene duplication or increasing the copy number of plasmids carrying ARGs (Paul et al., 2017; Sandegren and Andersson, 2009).

Conventionally the emergence and spread of AR is believed to be the consequence of use and abuse of antibiotics. However, in natural environment, bacteria are exposed to miscellaneous potential hazards such as heavy metals, antibiotics, and solvents. Therefore, bacteria were under selective pressure to evolve and develop mechanisms to better tolerate not only single stressors but actually mixtures of contaminants. Resistance mechanisms for heavy metals, antibiotics, organic solvents and other substances have been described in great detail (Chandrangsu et al., 2017; Hughes and Andersson, 2017; Ramos et al., 2002). In contrast, not much is known on how different resistance determinants evolved together and how much these resistances are simultaneously regulated. The importance of chemicals other than antibiotics causing cross-resistance may be overlooked. It is clear that the presence of metals in the environment co-selects for resistance to antibiotics (Song et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2016; Pal et al., 2017). Here we review recent studies that suggest various chemicals or chemical mixtures promote AR. Research on this front is vastly needed and chemical mixtures' role in AR should be taken into account when the overall strategy to counter AR is considered.

1. Chemicals or chemical mixtures and antibiotic resistance

Among all chemicals, metals are probably the most thoroughly studied in relation to AR. The association of AR with metals

has been reviewed extensively (Baker-Austin et al., 2006; Pal 110 et al., 2017). Metal mixtures, along with antibiotics, are often 111 used as feed supplements in animal farms. High throughput 112 analysis of ARGs from pig farms and impacted soils reveals 113 that ARGs can be enriched up to 28,000-fold (Zhu et al., 2013). 114 Despite locations separated by over 1000 km, the diversity 115 and abundance patterns of ARGs show similar profile of the 116 same management types. More importantly, the abundance 117 of ARGs is correlated with the concentrations of antibiotics, 118 and metals such as copper, zinc, and arsenic, suggesting 119 metals provide selection pressure for AR (Zhu et al., 2013).

In pure cultures, individual metals have been found to 121 induce AR. In a bacterium LSJC7, arsenic, copper, and zinc 122 enhanced the resistance towards tetracycline (Chen et al., 123 2015). This is further demonstrated by the surface-enhanced 124 Raman scattering (SERS) technique (Cui et al., 2016), in which 125 spectral changes representing phenotypic bacterial re- 126 sponses, in combination with multivariate analysis, indicated 127 that arsenic enhanced the resistance to tetracycline.

In addition to the more thoroughly studied metals, other 129 chemicals are increasingly found to be linked to the rise of AR. 130 Halogenated nitrogenous disinfection byproducts (N-DBPs) are 131 a group of unintended byproducts formed during chlorination 132 or chloramination for treatment of drinking water. It has been 133 found that exposure to bromoacetamide, trichloroacetonitrile 134 or tribromonitromethane, three representatives of N-DBPs, 135 increased the resistance of Pseudomonas aeruginosa PAO1 to 136 both individual and multiple antibiotics (Lv et al., 2015). The 137 same induction phenomena were also observed in Escherichia 138 coli, raising concerns about the rise of AR in drinking water.

Triclosan is an antiseptic present in many health care and 140 consumer products, such as soaps, lotions, toothpaste, and 141 some commonly used household fabrics and plastics. It has 142 been shown that a P. aeruginosa mutant, which is susceptible to 143 triclosan due to the deletion of triclosan-resistant MexAB-OprM 144 efflux system, selects multidrug-resistant bacteria at high 145 frequencies when exposed to triclosan (Chuanchuen et al., 146 2001). The minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs) of 147 several antibiotics for some of the mutants were increased up 148 to 500-fold.

In wastewater treatment plants, UV/H₂O₂ process is consid- 150 ered an effective method to control spread of antibiotic 151 resistant bacteria. Although UV/H2O2 process is effective for 152 bacterial inactivation, it's not effective in ARGs removal from 153 water suspension (Ferro et al., 2016). Actually, an increase of 154 antibiotic resistance gene blaTEM was observed in total DNA 155 after 240 min treatment. Chlorination is commonly used for 156 treatment of wastewater and disinfection of drinking water. It 157 has been shown that after chlorination, a higher proportion 158 of the surviving bacteria is resistant to several antibiotics 159 (Shi et al., 2013). Chlorination results in enrichment of some 160 ARGs. Osmotic stress can also influence microbial suscepti- 161 bility to antibiotics. For example, when isolates of Listeria 162 monocytogenes are exposed to different concentrations of salt, 163 their resistance to antibiotics increases as salt concentration 164 increases (Al-Nabulsi et al., 2015). 165

Some herbal extracts, such as essentials oils, have been 166 used in various consumer products. Pine oil, a disinfectant 167 used in household products, has been found to select mutants 168 of E. coli for resistance to multiple antibiotics (Moken et al., 169

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