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- 1 Antibiotic susceptibility of Neochlamydia hartmanellae and Parachlamydia
- 2 acanthamoebae in amoebae
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25 Running title: Antibiotic susceptibility of *Parachlamydiaceae*

ABSTRACT

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Parachlamydia acanthamoebae and Neochlamydia hartmanellae are Chlamydia-related 28 bacteria naturally infecting free-living amoebae. These strict intracellular bacteria might 29 represent emerging pathogens. Recent studies report an association with lower respiratory 30 tract infections, especially with pneumonia where they have been identified as a potential 31 causative agent in 1-2% of cases. In this study, we defined the antibiotic susceptibility of 32 Neochlamydia hartmanellae, two strains of Parachlamydia acanthamoebae and two yet 33 unclassified *Parachlamydiaceae* strains using a quantitative approach. 34 We confirmed the results obtained earlier for P. acanthamoebae strain Bn9 in an 35 observational study. Macrolides (MICs < 0.06 - 0.5 µg/ml), rifampicin (MICs 0.25-0.5, 1-2 36 µg/ml) and doxycycline were active against P. acanthamoebae strains and Neochlamydia. All 37 strains were resistant to amoxicillin, ceftriaxone and imipenem (MIC \geq 32 µg/ml). Similarly to 38 other Chlamydia-related bacteria, all investigated Parachlamydiaceae were resistant to 39 quinolones (MICs \geq 16 µg/ml). Therefore, we recommend a treatment with macrolides for 40 Parachlamydia-associated pneumonia. 41

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Keywords: Parachlamydiaceae, Antibiotic, Pneumonia, Chlamydia, Intracellular bacteria

INTRODUCTION

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In the past few years various Chlamydia-related bacteria, such as Parachlamydia 46 acanthamoebae and Neochlamydia hartmanellae have been discovered, extending our 47 knowledge on the *Chlamydiales* ecology. Similarly to the pathogenic *Chlamydia trachomatis* 48 and Chlamydia pneumoniae, these obligate intracellular bacteria are characterized by their 49 biphasic developmental cycle with infectious elementary bodies (EBs) and replicative 50 reticulate bodies (RBs). They have been assigned to the Parachlamydiaceae family level-51 lineage based on highly taxonomic discriminative genes [1,2] and are known to naturally 52 infect free-living amoebae [3,4]. 53 54 Various works suggest a role of P. acanthamoebae as a causative agent of pneumonia and other lower respiratory tract infections [5]. A first hint was suggested by its isolation from the 55 water of an humidifier involved in an epidemic of fever in Vermont, USA [6]. This was 56 further confirmed by a positive association with evidence of acute infections to P. 57 acanthamoebae and community acquired pneumonia (CAP) [7], ventilator associated 58 pneumonia (VAP) [8] and nosocomial pneumonia [9]. In addition, P. acanthamoebae DNA 59 was identified in 2 cases of lower respiratory tract infections in children [10] as well as in 60 13% of children with bronchiolitis [11]. Similar findings were also shown for other members 61 62 of the Parachlamydiaceae, such as Protochlamydia amoebophila [12] and Protochlamydia naegleriophila [13]. Despite low prevalence of direct isolation of these organisms (less than 63 1% in CAP and 8% in VAP), cases of *Parachlamydiaceae*-associated pneumonia were clearly 64 documented leaving no doubt of the pathogenic role of these species. A low prevalence of 65 Chlamydia pneumoniae-associated pneumonia was also observed in recent studies [14–16]. 66 Its clinical relevance is, nonetheless, not debated. 67 These findings suggest that *Parachlamydiaceae* might be responsible for at least some cases 68 of pneumonia of unidentified etiology. Therefore, it is crucial to verify that current 69

recommended empirical treatments of pneumonia are effective on these emerging pathogens. 70

Partial information is already given by the work performed by Maurin et al. [17]. However, in

this study, minimal inhibitory concentrations (MICs) were defined as the lowest concentration

that prevented amoebal lysis and therefore provides information based on indirect

observations that might be influenced by additional aspects than bacterial growth [18].

In this work, we used a specific real-time PCR to define quantitatively the antibiotic 75

susceptibility of Neochlamydia hartmanellae, two strains of P. acanthamoebae and two yet

unclassified *Parachlamydiaceae* strains. This approach has already been applied to determine

antibiotic susceptibility of other *Chlamydia*-related bacteria [19,20] and is now considered as

the standard technique to define antibiotic susceptibility. It should therefore be preferentially

used to perform comparisons.

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MATERIAL AND METHODS

Parachlamydia acanthamoebae strain Hall's coccus, Parachlamydia acanthamoebae strain 83 BN9 (ATCC VR-1476), Parachlamydia sp. TUMPL1 and the Neochlamydia sp. UWC22 84 were grown within Acanthamoeba polyphaga strain Linc AP-1 as previously described [21]. 85 Neochlamydia hartmanellae (symbiont of Hartmanella vermiformis ATCC 50802) was 86 grown similarly within Hartmanella vermiformis strain BL. After 6 days of incubation, 87 cultures were harvested and the broth was centrifuged at 180 x g for 10 minutes to eliminate 88 most amoebae. The supernatant was then diluted at 1:1000 in Page's amoebal saline (PAS) 89 [21], which corresponds to an approximate final concentration of about 10³ bacteria/ml. 50 µl 90 of this inocolum was then used to infect Acanthamoeba polyphaga strain Linc AP-1 91 (Parachlamydia and Parachlamydiaceae-related strain) and Hartmanella vermiformis strain 92 BL (Neochlamydia hartmanellae), respectively, distributed in a 96-wells Costar micro plates 93 (Corning) at a concentration of $5x10^5$ amoebae/ml. These amoebae were grown axenically as

previously described [21]. After two hours of incubation, at 32°C, to allow internalization, 50 95 ul of serial antibiotics dilutions were added. Antibiotics tested in this study were doxycycline 96 [0.06-4 µg/ml] (Pfizer, Neuilly, France), erythromycin [0.06-4 µg/ml] (Abbot, Rungis, 97 France), clarithromycin [0.06-4 µg/ml] (SmithKline Beecham, Nanterre, France), rifampicin 98 [0.06-4 µg/ml] (Cassenne, Puteaux, France). Other antibiotics, that were expected to be 99 ineffective on Parachlamydiaceae based on the work of Maurin et al [17], were tested at a 100 single high concentration: ofloxacin [16 µg/ml] (Diamant, Puteaux, France), ciprofloxacin [16 101 μg/ml] (Bayer Pharma, Sebs, France), amoxicillin [100 and 32 μg/ml] (SmithKline Beecham, 102 Nanter, France), ceftriaxone [100 and 32 µg/ml] (Roche, Paris, France) and imipenem [100 103 104 and 32 µg/ml]. Antibiotics were tested in duplicate. Growth was assessed using a real time TaqMan PCR assay at 2, 24, 48, 72 and 96 hours 105 post infection. Briefly, bacterial co-cultures were incubated at 32°C and wells were 106 107 harvested at the adequate time. DNA was extracted from 200 µl aliquots of infected amoebal cells using the BioRad Genomic DNA Kit (BioRad Laboratories, Hercules, Ca), 108 as described by the manufacturer. The extracted nucleic acid was resuspended in a final 109 volume of 50 µl and stored at -20°C until used in the quantitative PCR assay. 110 Antibiotic-free wells served as growth controls while uninfected amoebae wells served as 111 negative controls. The absence of toxicity of antibiotics to amoebal cells was determined 112 by examining the amoebal micro plates once a day under an inverted microscope (Zeiss 113 Axiovert 25, Carl Zeiss). To assess the activity and dilution of the antibiotics used, MICs 114 were determined for Escherichia coli ATCC 8739 and Staphylococcus aureus ATCC 115 49976 (Institut Pasteur, Marnes La Coquette, France) using Mueller-Hinton agar 116 (bioMérieux) incubated at 37°C for 18 hours. 117 Quantitative PCR was performed using TaqMan technology in a final volume of 25 µl 118 including 12.5 µl of the TaqMan Universal Master Mix (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, Ca) 119

200 nM of the forward primer (abF 5'- CTCGTGCCGTGAGGTGTT), 200 nM of the reverse primer (abR 5'- AGCACGTGTGTAGCCCCA), 100 nM of the fluorescent labeled probe (6-FAM-5'-TCAGGTGGGAACTCTAATGAGACTGCCT 3'-TAMRA, where 6-FAM is 6-carboxyfluorescein and TAMRA is 6-carboxytetramethylrhodamine), 2.5 μl of water and 2.5 μl of DNA. Amplification and detection were performed on the ABI 7900HT sequence detection system (TaqMan system, Applied Biosystems). Cycling conditions were 2 minutes at 50°C, 10 minutes at 95°C, followed by 40 cycles of 15 seconds at 95°C and 1 minute at 60°C. DNA extracted from tittered *Parachlamydia* and water were used as positive and negative controls, respectively. The number of bacteria/ml in each sample was then determined by comparing the threshold cycle (C_T) of the sample to that of the tittered positive control used to establish a calibration curve.

RESULTS

In this study, we evaluated the susceptibility of various members of the *Parachlamydiaceae* to six classes of antibiotics. MICs were defined using a quantitative PCR as the minimal concentration that prevented bacterial growth. The cut-off used to define a significant prevention of bacterial growth was the presence of less than a 100 bacterial copies at day 3, based on the growth kinetics in the absence of antibiotics (figure 1). Both strains of *P. acanthamoebae* exhibited a lag in their growth at day 3. Therefore cut-off was adjusted to less than 10 copies to ensure a better discrimination and growth at day 4 was tested to establish the susceptibility to ceftriaxone. No antibiotic toxicity was observed on the amoebae (data not shown). We showed that *Parachlamydiaceae* were resistant to β -lactams (MIC >32 μ g/ml) as well as to quinolones (MIC >16 μ g/ml); such concentrations are, indeed, never achieved in the human body. As expected, macrolides were active against all species even at a concentration of 0.06 μ g/ml for clarithromycin (MIC <0.06 μ g/ml) and 0.06-0.5 μ g/ml for

erythromycin. Doxycycline was active against both strains of *P. acanthamoebae* and *Neochlamydia hartmanellae* (MICs 2-4 μ g/ml). However, MICs seemed to be higher for the unclassified *Parachlamydiaceae* (\geq 8 μ g/ml). *Parachlamydiaceae* were also susceptible to rifampicin, with a stronger efficacy against *P. acanthamoebae* species (MIC 0.25-0.5 μ g/ml) versus *Neochlamydia* (MIC 2 μ g/ml) (figure 2).

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DISCUSSION

In this paper, we confirmed the results obtained for *P. acanthamoebae* strain BN9 by Maurin et al. [17] using a reliable quantitative approach and extended these observations to additional members of the Parachlamydiaceae. We demonstrated that the antibiotic susceptibility of Parachlamydiaceae in amoebae is quite similar to what is known for other members of the Chlamydiales (see table 1). Macrolides are the treatment of choice. Cyclines might be an alternative, at least for P. acanthamoebae strains and Neochlamydia hartmanellae, but conclusions are difficult to draw due to the *in vitro* amoeabal model used in our study. Indeed, it has already been demonstrated that amoebae are a good alternative to mammalian cells lines to test the antibiotic susceptibility for species that strictly grow in amoebae, as similar results are obtained in both cell types [20]. However, caution should be taken regarding doxycycline, which MIC tends to be higher in amoebae due to the likely presence of an efflux pump [20]. In our study, we found a MIC of 4ug/ml that might be overestimated compared to mammalian cells. Nevertheless, even if a concentration of 4µg/ml is required to inhibit bacterial growth in humans, doxycycline is still an acceptable treatment for Parachlamydia-related pneumonia, as it was shown that such lung concentrations were achieved in humans after a single dose of 200 mg IV doxycycline [22]. Confirmation of our results in a mammalian cell model seems to be difficult. Indeed, so far, it has not been possible to grow Neochlamydia hartmanellae in mammalian cells in vitro and, even if P. acanthamoebae was shown to replicate in

pneumocytes, fibroblasts [23], as well as macrophages [24] cells lines in vitro, growth is very 170 171 limited, in these cell lines, preventing accurate antibiotic susceptibility testing. Rifampicin was shown to be efficient against Parachlamydiaceae, similarly to what is 172 observed for Chlamydia trachomatis. However, resistance are known to rapidly develop 173 under treatment [25]. Therefore, caution should be taken when using this antibiotic in a single 174 antibiotic regimen. 175 176 Of utmost interest, our results confirm that unlike Chlamydia spp.[25–31], Neochlamydia and Parachlamydia spp. are resistant to quinolones, as already demonstrated for several other 177 Chlamydia-related bacteria, including Simkania negevensis, Waddlia chondrophila and 178 Estrella lausannensis [19,20,32]. This resistance is probably due to a mutation in the 179 quinolones Resistance-Determining Region (QRDR) of gyrA, as shown by a recent 180 publication [32]. Indeed, two substitutions were identified in quinolones resistant 181 Chlamydiales when compared to susceptible Chlamydiaceae: (1) at position 70, the presence 182 of a serine and (2) at position 83, the substitution of cysteine by another amino acid might 183 induce resistance [32,33]. Quinolones such as levofloxacin represent one of the alternative 184 treatments recommended for CAP, especially in patients that require in-treatment or patients 185 suffering from additional co-morbidities in the objective to cover both S. pneumoniae and P. 186 aeruginosa infection [34]. Since Chlamydia-related bacteria might represent 1-2% of 187

community-acquired pneumonia, caution should be taken when prescribing quinolones.

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200	The authors did not report any potential conflict of interest.
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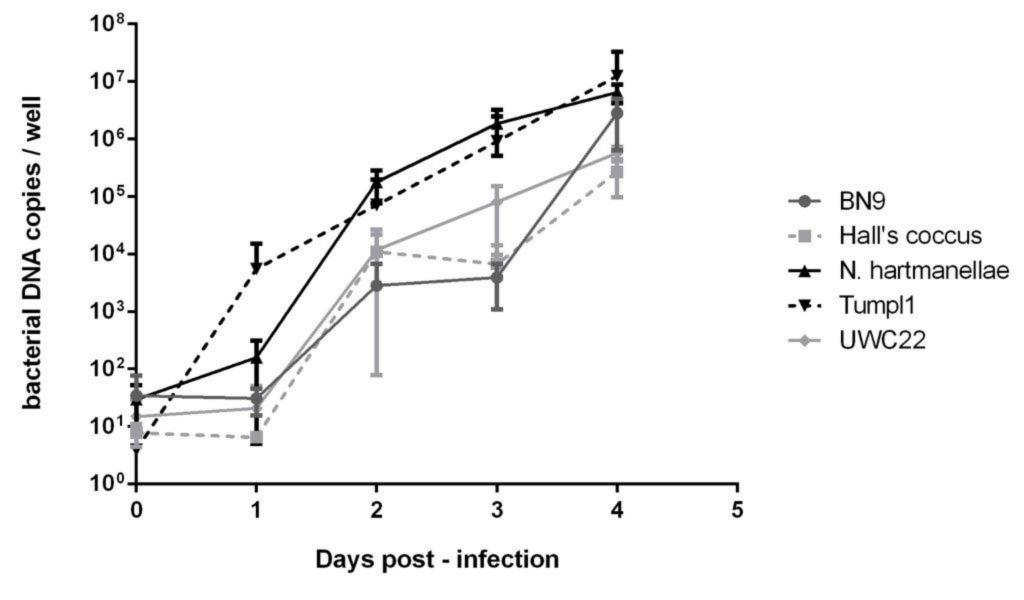
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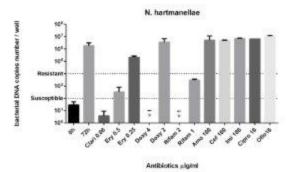
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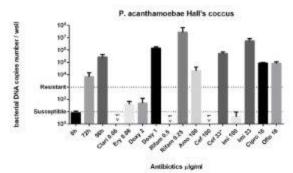
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333	FIGURES AND TABLE
334	Figure 1: Growth kinetic of each parachlamydial strains in amoebae without antibiotic
335	Kinetics were determined by quantitative PCR. Results are shown in a logarithmic scale as
336	the means +/- standard deviation of triplicate experiments.
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338	Figure 2: Antibiotic susceptibility of each parachlamydial strains in amoebae
339	Bacterial copy numbers were determined by quantitative PCR at day 3 post-infection, except
340	when indicated by a *, where it was determined at day 4. Only results of significant
341	experiments are shown. Results are shown in a logarithmic scale as the means +/- standard
342	deviation in duplicate experiments. Abbreviations : Clari, clarithromycin; Ery, erythromycin
343	Doxy, doxycycline, Rifam, rifampicin; Amo, amoxicillin; Cef, ceftriaxone; Imi, imipenem
344	Cipro, ciprofloxacin; Oflo, ofloxacin.
345	(A) Neochlamydia hartmanellae (B) Parachlamydia acanthamoebae strain Hall's coccus (C)
346	Parachlamydia acanthamoebae strain BN9 (D) Parachlamydia sp. Tumpl1 (E) Neochlamydia
347	sp. UWC22.
348 349	Table 1: Antibiotic susceptibility of Parachlamydiaceae and others Chlamydiales
350	This table represents the MICs in µg/ml of various antibiotics against members of the
351	Chlamydiales orders
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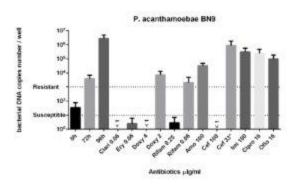


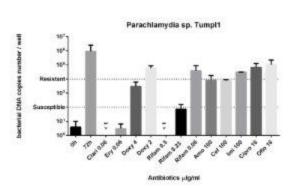






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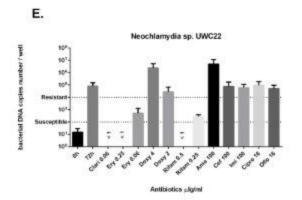


 Table 1: Antibiotic susceptibility of Parachlamydiaceae and others Chlamydiales

	Parachlamydiaceae						Wada	dliaceae	Criblamydiaceae	Chlamydiaceae	
	BN9	P. acanthamoe BN9	bae Hall's coccus	N. hartmanellae	Parachlamydi UWC22	diaceae spp. Tumpl1	W. chondrophila		E. lausannensis	C. trachomatis	C. pneumoniae
	[17]	DINS	Hall 3 coccus							[25-29]	
Cell lines		Amoebae					Vero	Amoebae	Vero	Mc Coy, Hep2	HeLA
MIC (μl/ml)											
Cyclines											
Tetracycline									0.25	0.25-0.5	0.125-0.5
Doxycycline	0.5	4	2	4	≥ 8	≥ 8	0.25	1-4	0.25	0.06-0.25	0.015-0.5
Macrolides											
Erythromycin	0.5	< 0.06	> 0.06	> 0.5	0.25	< 0.06	ND	ND	ND	<0.125-2	<0.125-0.5
Clarithromycin	0.5	< 0.06	< 0.06	< 0.06	< 0.06	< 0.06	ND	ND	ND	<0.125-2	<0.125-1
Azythromycin	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	0.25	0.006-0.125	2	<0.125-2	<0.125-0.5
β-lactams											
Penicillin derivatives	> 32	> 32	> 32	> 32	> 32	> 32	> 32	> 32	> 32	ND	>100
Ceftriaxone	> 32	> 32	> 32	> 32	> 32	> 32	> 32	> 32	> 32	<32	ND
Imipenem			>32								
Fluoroquinolones											
Ciprofloxacin	> 16	> 16	> 16	> 16	> 16	> 16	> 16	> 16	32	0.5-2	1-4
Ofloxacine	> 16	> 16	> 16	> 16	> 16	> 16	> 16	> 16	16	0.5-1	0.5-2
Rifamycine											
Rifampicine	0.25	0.25	0.5	1-2	0.25-0.5	0.25-0.5	ND	ND	ND	<0.125-1	<0.125

Abbreviations: MIC, Minimal inhibitory concentration; ND, Not determined