

Quantification of antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) in clouds at a mountain site (puy de Dôme, central France)

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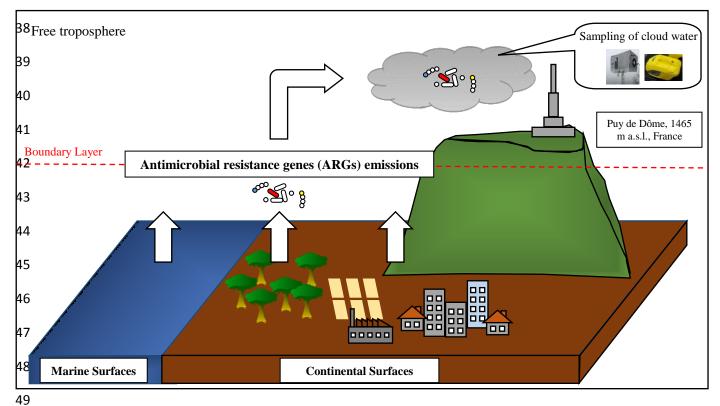
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Quantification of Antibiotic Resistance Genes (ARGs) in Clouds at a Mountain Site (puy de Dôme, Central France) Florent Rossi¹, Raphaëlle Péguilhan², Nathalie Turgeon¹, Marc Veillette¹, Jean-Luc Baray^{3,4}, Laurent Deguillaume^{3,4}, Pierre Amato² and Caroline Duchaine¹ ¹ Centre de Recherche de l'Institut Universitaire de Cardiologie et de Pneumologie de Québec, Université Laval, Quebec City, Quebec, Canada, Département de Biochimie, de Microbiologie et de Bio-informatique, Faculté des Sciences et de Génie, Université Laval, Quebec City, Quebec, Canada ² Université Clermont Auvergne, CNRS, SIGMA Clermont, ICCF, F-63000 CLERMONT-FERRAND, France. ³ Université Clermont Auvergne, CNRS, Observatoire de Physique du Globe de Clermont-Ferrand, UAR 833, F-63000 CLERMONT-FERRAND, France. ⁴ Université Clermont Auvergne, CNRS, Laboratoire de Météorologie Physique, UMR 6016, F-63000 CLERMONT-FERRAND, France. Corresponding authors: Caroline.Duchaine@bcm.ulaval.ca CRIUCPO, Building A-21 2725 Chemin Ste-Foy, Québec, Canada G1V 4G5 **Keywords:** Clouds, Bioaerosols, Antimicrobial resistance genes (ARGs), Atmosphere

36 Graphical abstract



Highlights

- Significant concentrations of ARGs are present in clouds in France
- The origin of air masses influenced the type and quantities of detected ARGs
 - Veterinary use could be the main contributors of ARGs in the free atmosphere
 - In such stressful environment, ARGs may provide selective advantage to microorganisms

Abstract

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Antibiotic resistance in bacteria is becoming a major sanitary concern worldwide. The extensive use of large quantities of antibiotics to sustain human activity has led to the rapid acquisition and maintenance of antibiotic resistant genes (ARGs) in bacteria and to their spread into the environment. Eventually, these can be disseminated over long distances by the atmospheric transport. Here, we assessed the presence of ARGs in clouds as an indicator of long-distance travel potential of antibiotic resistance in the atmosphere. We hypothesized that a variety of ARGs can reach the altitude of clouds mainly located within the free troposphere. Once incorporated in the atmosphere, they are efficiently transported and their respective concentrations should differ depending on the sources and the geographical origin of the air masses. We deployed high-flow rate impingers and collected twelve cloud events between September 2019 and October 2021 at the meteorological station of the puy de Dôme summit (1,465 m a.s.l, France). Total airborne bacteria concentration was assessed by flow cytometry, and ARGs subtypes of the main families of antibiotic resistance (quinolone, sulfonamide, tetracycline; glycopeptide, aminoglycoside, β-lactamase, macrolide) including one mobile genetic element (transposase) were quantified by qPCR. Our results indicate the presence of 29 different ARGs' subtypes at concentrations ranging from 1.01×10^3 to 1.61×10^4 copies m⁻³ of air. Clear distinctions could be observed between clouds in air masses transported over marine areas (Atlantic Ocean) and clouds influenced by continental surfaces. Specifically, quinolones (mostly qepA) resistance genes were prevalent in marine clouds (54% of the total ARGs on average), whereas higher contributions of sulfonamide, tetracycline; glycopeptide, β-lactamase and macrolide were found in continental clouds. This study constitutes the first evidence for the presence of microbial ARGs in clouds at concentrations comparable to other natural environments. This highlights the atmosphere as routes for the dissemination of ARGs at a large scale.

Introduction

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Antibiotic resistance has been classified as one of the 10 biggest threats for human societies in the near future. In 2019, more than 4.95 million deaths were associated with antimicrobial resistance, and about 1.27 million were directly attributed to antibiotic-resistant bacterial infections ¹. If no action is taken, this number could rise to up to 10 million deaths per year by 2050, making it the first cause of death worldwide and engendering cumulative global cost to the economy over 100 trillion USD ². The resistance to antimicrobial substances is a natural phenomenon that includes natural microbial evolution dynamics, and the extensive use of antibiotics to sustain growing human populations have greatly promoted it ³. Each year, tens of thousands of tons of antibiotics are used for treating and preventing human, animal and plant diseases 4, and at least a fraction can be released in the environment. Nowadays, antibiotics can be detected in waste water ⁵ and in the natural environment, from rivers ⁶ and sea water ^{7,8} to soils ⁹, and therefore carrying antibiotic resistance can now be considered beneficial for bacteria in the environment. A recent report from the French national agency for sanitary, environment and work safety highlighted median total antibiotics concentrations in French rivers of 12 ng L⁻¹, dominated by fluoroquinolones and sulfamethoxazole ¹⁰. In hospital raw effluent and waste water treatment plants effluent, these concentrations were 17.10³ ng L⁻¹ and 300 ng L⁻¹ respectively. In soils, concentrations reaching up to 62 to 3.10³ ng g of dw⁻¹ in sewage sludge were reported. Given such conditions, the natural environment is becoming a major actor in the emergence of antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) in microbes naturally present in the environment. So far, the main antibiotic resistance mechanisms described in bacteria include direct

antibiotic inactivation through enzymatic digestion, and modifications of the biological targets

such as by methylation of the binding sites ¹¹. Other mechanisms prevent antibiotics from entering the cell (e.g. biofilm formation, reduced membrane permeability) or are responsible for their active evacuation (e.g. efflux pumps). These mechanisms are encoded by so-called antimicrobial resistance genes (ARGs), carried either by chromosomes or plasmids. In the latter case, these can be easily transferred horizontally between bacteria cells and species through genetic material exchanges (conjugation, etc).

ARGs dispersal is logically tightly linked with that of bacteria cells. ARGs can transit via microbes between ecosystems, and the atmosphere could act as a major route of their dispersal, in particular over long distances ^{12,13}. Although the conditions encountered in the atmosphere may severely limit bacterial survival, some amount of genetic material is undoubtedly dispersed by atmospheric circulations. Investigating the occurrence of ARGs in the air at high-altitude and clouds can thus provide valuable information regarding the long-distance spread of such functions. Main bacteria cell aerosolization mechanisms include mechanical disturbances, such as wind, raindrop impaction on surfaces, bubble-bursting, etc ^{14–16}. Once aerosolized, depending on air turbulence, airborne micro-organisms can eventually reach higher altitudes, travel over continents ^{13,17}, and can integrate the atmospheric water cycle, clouds and precipitation, before deposition ^{18,19}.

With the increase awareness that human health is closely related with the wider environment, studying ARGs dispersal in the atmosphere, its potential to spread over long distances and its relation with human activities could provide critical and valuable information. Hence, this study is a part of the wider "Discovery Frontiers" research program dedicated to the study of airborne dissemination of ARGs ²⁰. In compliance with the "One Health" interdisciplinary approach ^{21,22}, this research program incorporates assessment of several different indoor environments and their outside emissions, novel ARG tracking and

surveillance methods, selective culture approaches, and animal models to be incorporated into exposure and risk assessment models.

Here, we examined ARGs in clouds in order to investigate their capacity to be dispersed over long distances through the multiphasic atmosphere. Clouds were sampled between September 2019 and October 2021 from a high altitude site in central France (puy de Dôme meteorological station, 1,465 m a.s.l). For each event, total bacteria and a panel of 33 ARGs subtypes were quantified by flow cytometry and qPCR, respectively, and interpreted in regards to the geographical origin of the corresponding air masses. The ARGs assessed were related to quinolone, sulfonamide, tetracycline, glycopeptide, aminoglycoside, β-lactamase and macrolide resistance and included one mobile genetic element (transposase). Overall, this study constitutes the first report of the presence of microbial ARGs in clouds and evidences of the atmosphere, and especially clouds, as pathways for the dissemination of antimicrobial resistance functions worldwide.

Material and Methods

Study site, collection of clouds and Air Masses Backward Trajectories

Cloud sampling was performed at the puy de Dôme (PUY) meteorological observatory (1,465 m a.s.l., 45.772° N, 2.9655° E - France) from September 2019 to October 2021. At each sampling occasion, two high flow rate impingers ²³ (HFRi, DS6, Kärcher SAS, Bonneuil sur Marne, France) sampling at an air flow rate of ~2 m³ h⁻¹ were deployed from the roof platform of the station to collect the cloudy air, that were then used for qPCR analyses. In parallel, a cloud collector allowing to sample cloud droplets was deployed nearby ^{24,25} for total cell quantification using flow cytometry. Sampling were performed for 2 to 5 consecutive hours depending on cloud events' duration. The HFRi were filled with 850 mL of

sterile nucleic acid preservation (NAP) buffer solution as the impaction liquid ²⁶. The volumes of cloud water recovered were estimated by weighting, assuming a cloud water density of 1.0. The NAP buffer solution was composed by 0.019 M of ethylenediaminetetra-acetic acid (EDTA) disodium salt dihydrate, 0.018 M of sodium citrate trisodium salt dihydrate, 3.8 M of ammonium sulfate, and H₂SO₄ to pH 5.2. HFRi samplers were sterilized prior each sampling event by thorough rinses with 70% ethanol followed by 10 minutes of exposure to UV light. Field blanks were conducted before each sampling and consisted of 850 mL of sterile NAP buffer solution left in contact with the HFRi's tanks for several minutes before recovery. The cloud droplet impactor was rinsed with ultrapure water and sterilized by autoclave before each sampling.

The CAT three-dimensional (3D) forward/backward kinematic trajectory model was used to calculate the 72-hours backward trajectories of clouds' air masses. The model uses dynamic fields extracted from the ECMWF ERA-5 meteorological data archive (https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/datasets/reanalysis-datasets/era5 ²⁷), allowing for the determination of air masses geographical origins and altitudes over the last 72 hours before sampling at the PDD meteorological observatory ^{28,29}. The model also provides the altitude relative to the planetary boundary layer (PBL) to estimate the influence of the underlying surfaces. In the present work, the ECMWF data used to calculate back-trajectories have a spatial resolution of 0.5° in latitude and longitude and a temporal resolution of 3 hours, and back-trajectory points have been calculated every 15 min.

Sample Processing and DNA Extraction

Cloud water samples collected with the HFRi in NAP preservation buffer were concentrated by individual filtration through 47 mm diameter mixed cellulose ester

membranes (MCE - $0.2~\mu m$ porosity) within a laminar flow hood, rolled into 5 mL bead tubes (Macherey-Nagel) and added with 1.2~mL of lysis buffer (MWA1 - Macherey-Nagel) before being stored at - 80° C until further analysis. DNA extraction was carried out individually from each separate filter using the NucleoMag DNA/RNA Water kit for water and air samples (Macherey-Nagel), based on the manufacturer's instructions, with some minor modifications to match with the modifications made on the original protocol (use of 47 mm diameter filters instead of 25 mm, and larger volumes of lysis buffer): briefly, after the recommended 10 min of mechanical lysis and 30 s of centrifugation (30 s at 1,000 g), 450 μ L of the lysates was transferred into two different microtubes. DNA extraction was then performed as recommended, with final elution volumes of 50 μ L of RNAse-free H₂O provided in the kit.

Quantification of Total Bacteria by Flow Cytometry

The concentration of total bacteria in cloud water was determined from samples collected with cloud droplets impactors. Briefly, the cells contained in 40 mL of water samples were pre-concentrated into ~200 µL by ultrafiltration using vivaspin 20 (Sartorius, 10 Kda molecular weight cut off), from two successive centrifugation steps of 20 mL at 4000 g for 16 min, and the addition of 1 mL of tris-EDTA buffer (1X), then transfer into 2 mL sterile microtubes. The exact concentration factor for each sample was obtained by weighting initial and final liquid volumes, considering a density of 1.0. Volumes of 200 µL of the preconcentrated samples were then stained with SYBR Green (1X final concentration, Invitrogen) for 15 minutes in the dark at room temperature, and total bacteria counts were performed using an LSR Fortessa Cell Analyzer flow cytometer (Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ). Cytograms were obtained by plotting SYBR green fluorescence intensity (488 nm, voltage 350 V) over forward scattering (voltage 500 V) after 60 seconds of run, and flow

rates were measured before analyzes of samples by weighing of ultrapure water after 10 minutes of run. All flow cytometry analyses were conducted within 4 to 12 hours of sampling.

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ARGs Quantification by qPCR

A panel of 33 ARGs belonging to the main families of antibiotic resistance was assessed from samples collected with HFRi in NAP buffer: \(\beta\)-lactamases, quinolones, tetracyclines, macrolides, aminoglycosides, sulfonamides, vancomycins as well as one mobile genetic element (transposases). More details about the ARGs targeted, including the corresponding sets of primers, are described in supplementary material (Table 1SI 30,31). PCR reactions and cycling conditions were identical for all target genes, and were as following: 4 μL of template DNA (diluted to 1/10), 10 μL of IQ Green supermix (BioRad), 5.88 μL of RNase-free H₂O and 0.12 µL of equimolarly mixed primers (50 µM each) in 20 µl final volume. Cycling conditions were set at 95°C for 3 min as initial denaturation step, followed by 40 cycles of 95°C for 10 s and 60°C for 30 s. The concentrations of each target gene in the samples were determined relatively to 10-fold dilution series of a 10⁶ copies x µl⁻¹ mix of control plasmids (pUCIDT-AMP) including the target sequence. All qPCR reactions were performed in technical duplicates from the pool of DNA extracts from samples collected simultaneously. Field blanks were also processed under the same conditions. A Ct value threshold of 37 was used as the limit of quantification, and all amplification peaks were systematically checked based on the melting curves of the corresponding plasmid standard.

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Statistical Analyses

All statistics were performed using R (R Core Team (2021). Statistical differences between each family of ARGs considering all cloud events (n = 12) was assessed by the nonparametric

Kruskal-Wallis test followed by multiple pairwise comparison using Tukey contrast from the "nparcomp" function of the R package of the same name 32 . The relationships between the 4 variables associated with the 72-hours backward trajectories (time spent within and above the planetary boundary layer, above continental and marine surfaces) and the relative concentrations of the different families of antibiotics quantified (quinolones, β-lactamases, vancomycin, tetracycline, sulfonamide, macrolide, aminoglycosides) including transposase in the samples were assessed using partial least square repression analysis (PLSR). The analysis was computed using the "PLS" function from the mixOmic R package 33,34 and all data were centered and reduced before analysis. Prior to the PLSR analysis, a hierarchical clustering was performed considering only the 72-hours backward trajectory parameters (Table 2 SI) to identify classes of cloud samples. The clustering involved Euclidean distances and was performed using the ward aggregation method. Statistical differences between clusters were assessed by multiple bootstrap resampling (100 bootstraps, P < 0.05) using the "pvclust" function of the corresponding R package 35 . Based on these groups, 95% level confidence interval ellipses were drawn.

Results

ARGs diversity and concentration in clouds

Of the 33 ARGs subtypes assessed in our study on 12 independent cloud events, 29 were detected at least once, and 6 were observed in 75% (9) or more of the samples (qnrB - qepA - aac(3) - ermB - tetO and vanA); 4 of the targets were not detected in any of the samples (tetS - blaGes - blaMOX and vanSA, Table 3 SI). The total absolute concentration of the ARGs assessed, considering all clouds, averaged $2.08 \times 10^4 \pm 6.40 \times 10^3$ copies mL⁻¹ of cloud water (mean \pm standard error of the mean), with values ranging from 3.45×10^3 to 6.47×10^4 copies

mL⁻¹ depending on samples (Table 1 and Figure 1A). This corresponded to an average concentration of $5.42 \times 10^3 \pm 1.51 \times 10^3$ ARGs copies m⁻³ of air $(1.01 \times 10^3 \text{ to } 1.61 \times 10^4 \text{ copies m}^-$ ³). The highest values were observed on the 03-Nov-20 and 10-Nov-20 and the lowest on the 22-Oct-19 and 28 Apr-21. The concentration of every family of ARGs varied significantly between clouds (Kruskal-Wallis, P < 0.05). However, quinolone resistance genes were by far the most prominent family (Kruskal-Wallis, P < 0.05). Their absolute concentration ranged from 2.69×10^2 to 4.90×10^4 copies mL⁻¹ (1.15×10² to 1.24×10⁴ copies m⁻³ of air respectively), with an average of $1.19 \times 10^4 \pm 3.93 \times 10^3$ copies mL⁻¹ ($3.18 \times 10^3 \pm 9.87 \times 10^2$ copies m⁻³). Based on the respective relative contributions of the different families of genes to the total pool of ARGs, two different patterns of samples could be observed (Figure 1B): half of clouds were characterized by limited proportions of resistance to quinolones (50% or less, 34% on average) and relatively high proportions of genes related with resistance to either macrolides (17-jul-20 and 10-Nov-20), β-lactamases (16-Oct-20 and 26-Oct-21), sulfonamides (28-Apr-21), or the three of them (22-Oct-19). The other half of samples displayed an overwhelming majority of quinolones resistance genes, reaching up to 88% (74% on average), and low proportions of all the other families. Interestingly, the vast majority of quinolone resistance was contributed by qepA (~98%), whereas qnrB represented only a minor fraction (< 2% on average), regardless of clouds. Concerning the other genes, aminoglycoside resistance and transposases were the lowest of all (Kruskal-Wallis, P < 0.05) with average concentrations of 1.08 ± 0.45 and 2.51 ± 1.35 copies mL⁻¹ respectively (0.26 ± 0.11) and 1.14 ± 0.76 copies m⁻³). Their cumulated contribution to the total ARGs barely reached 0.05%, and there were many events where they could not be detected. The relative contributions of the other families of ARGs were, by decreasing importance: β-lactamases (~12%), sulfonamides (~11%), vancomycins (~9%), macrolides (~8%) and tetracyclines (~6%).

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The total absolute bacteria number concentration averaged $8.0 \times 10^3 \pm 2.9 \times 10^3$ cells per mL⁻¹ of cloud water, with, as observed for ARGs, large variations between samples (Figure 2 and Table 1). Based on these data, each bacteria cell carried on average 7.1 \pm 2.5 ARGs. Nevertheless, no correlation could be observed between these two variables (Spearman correlation coefficient ρ = -0.23, P = 0.5, figure 2), indicating that the total ARGs copies does not necessarily covariate with the total number of bacteria cells in cloud water. Specifically, there were >10 times more ARGs copies than bacteria cells in the samples on the 10-Nov-20, 19-Nov-20 and 13-Oct-21, and ~ 5 times more in the samples collected on the 11-Mar-20, 03-Nov-20, 06-May-20, and 26-Oct-20. In contrast, in the samples collected on 22-Oct-19, 16-Oct-20, 28-Oct-20 and 28-Apr-21, bacteria cells were more abundant than ARGs copies by factors of up to one order of magnitude, with values that ranged between 1 ARG every 10 bacteria to 1 ARG per bacteria at most.

Influence of the geographical origin of the air masses on the ARG and bacteria abundances in clouds

The clouds assessed originated from various geographical areas (Figure 1SI). Based on the time spent by air masses above continental or marine surfaces within the 72-hours preceding sampling, as well as their altitudes, 3 groups of samples could be distinguished (Figure 2SI and Table 2SI): "Continental" clouds (events 22-Oct-19, 17-Jui-20, 16-Oct-20, 10 Nov-20 and 28-Apr-21), for which the air masses spent on average 70% of the time over continental surfaces, "Marine high" clouds (events 11-Mar-20, 03-Nov-20, 19-Nov-20 and 06-May-21), for which the air masses spent 85% of time over the Atlantic Ocean, mostly at high altitude in the free troposphere, and finally "Marine low" clouds (events 28-Oct-20, 13-Oct-21 and 26-Oct-21) for which the air masses spent most time (75%) above the Atlantic Ocean, for a large part within the planetary boundary layer (PBL).

Based on the relative abundance of the main families of ARGs (95% level confidence interval; Figure 3A), "Continental" clouds differed significantly and were more variable than "Marine" clouds (both "low" and "high"), whereas the two "Marine" types clouds did not significantly differ from each other. More precisely, quinolones resistance genes were more abundant in "Marine" clouds (Figure 3B), in particular "Marine high" clouds, whereas sulfonamide and tetracycline resistance genes appeared mostly associated with "Continental" surfaces, especially for air masses that travelled within the PBL. Macrolide resistance genes were associated with continental surfaces as well, but these were mostly prevalent in air masses that travelled at higher altitude. The abundances of β-lactamase, vancomycin and aminoglycoside resistance genes as well as transposases could not be explained by the geographical origin of the air masses using this classification.

Discussion

ARGs reach high altitudes and clouds

Detecting ARGs in clouds robustly evidences that they are transported over large geographical areas over the planet. Here, we monitored 33 different genes belonging to the main classes of antimicrobial resistance. This is standard in atmospheric studies ^{36–38}, although it is still non-exhaustive of the ARGs known. For this reason, most estimations of ARGs concentrations in the environment, including ours in clouds, likely underestimate the current situation. The ARGs known at the time of writing includes more than 6,500 ontology terms covering resistant mechanisms from approximately 2,923 antimicrobial resistance determinants ³⁹. Most have functions not directly associated with antibiotic resistance but with more general roles in stress response, for instance the increase of outer-membrane permeability to face osmotic variations, efflux pumps toward a large variety of toxic

substances 40 . Some antibiotic-degrading β -lactamases (ampC-type) were also found to be related with ancestral peptidoglycan-modifying activities. The atmosphere is a highly selective and stressful environment for microbial cells 24 ; some of these genes and functions could therefore be favorable for survival 41 , and reinforce the capacity of bacterial ARGs to spread by atmospheric transport.

Our data evidence cloud's resistome. Numerous antibiotic resistance genes were found recurrent or more sporadic, at concentrations ranging from ~10³ to ~10⁵ gene copies mL⁻¹. Comparatively to other environments, this is 2 to 3 orders of magnitude lower than in rivers ^{42–44} (6.2×10⁶ to 1×10⁸ copies mL⁻¹) and lakes ⁴⁵ (4.4×10⁶ to 2.4×10⁷ copies mL⁻¹), and waste water effluents ⁴⁶ (1.0×10³ to 1.0×10⁷ copies mL⁻¹) and sea in coastal areas (1.2×10⁴ – 3.9×10⁵ copies mL⁻¹). Our observations are even higher than the concentrations reported in sea water ⁴⁷ (21.1 to 8×10³ copies mL⁻¹). However, on a volumetric basis, it has to be kept in mind that water in clouds is distributed among droplets with micrometric radius, and cloud liquid water content (LWC) is typically on the order of ~0.1 to 0.8 mL of water per m⁻³ of air. In this respect, clouds on the planet represent diluted environments since they are polydisperse medium, also composed of air. Additionally, direct comparisons of ARG quantification between independent studies are not necessarily relevant as the number and diversity of the targets may vary.

Spatial and temporal variability of ARGs in clouds and links with potential sources

The abundance of antimicrobial resistance functions in the environment is likely variable in space and times in relation with the natural (seasonal) or anthropogenically induced fluctuations of biomass and biodiversity in ecosystems, meteorological conditions, atmospheric and oceanic circulation, etc. In the atmosphere, the microbial content is affected

by sources such as vegetation, so marked seasonal variations of the biodiversity are often observed, including the puy de Dôme sampling site ⁴⁸. Here, we did not observe such seasonal variations on the ARGs in clouds and their abundance. Many concurrent environmental factors influence the composition of cloud water (e.g. ionic concentrations), and although our dataset is relatively consequent regarding the difficulties of sampling, it remains too limited to clearly identify environmental trends such as seasonality, requiring long-term monitoring. We could detect links between the geographical origin of the air masses and the relative abundances of the different ARG families in clouds, which attests of the heterogeneous distribution of ARGs in the environment. These can be related with differences of usage between countries and continents, as previously reported in waste water treatment plants ⁴⁶. Quinolones resistance genes were dominant in our study, in particular in air masses influenced by marine areas. This is consistent with literature as they were found to be the second most abundant in urban air samples from various cities around the Earth, although still far behind β-lactamases resistance genes ³⁸. However, their presence in the indoor-air of human facilities, including waste water treatment plants and many different animal farms, appears much lower ⁴⁹. While this partially traduces different detection methods, this could suggest that these systems may not be the main contributors of quinolones resistance in the atmosphere in comparison with natural sources. This is supported by metagenomics data from ocean samples collected by past TARA expeditions from 2009 to 2012 ⁵⁰, where an important proportion of quinolone resistance genes, in particular multidrug efflux pumps was observed and especially in coastal areas ⁴⁷. Similar trends have been observed in soils, where efflux pump resistance mechanisms represented nearly 60% of the total detected ARGs, out of 242 tested ⁵¹. In our study, the vast majority of quinolones were related with *qepA*, an exclusively plasmid-mediated efflux pump 52 from the superfamily of major facilitators, likely derived from soil β -proteobacteria strains' transmembrane transporters ^{53,54} and hence explaining its

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occurrence in the environment. Its regulation involves the soxRS gene, a positive twocomponent regulator part of the superoxide stress response and triggered by various stresses, including damages to DNA, exposure to toxicants and reactive oxygen species ^{52,54}. This supports that the environment is not only an important reservoir of bacterial resistance but could promote their maintenance through environmental stresses, and that the atmosphere would act as vector at a large scale of these genes. Quinolone antibiotics, including fluoroguinolones, are broad spectrum synthetic antibiotics introduced in the early 1960s and widely used until the late 1980s ⁵⁵. Since the recommendation of their restriction in Europe emitted by the Pharmacovigilance Risk Assessment Committee (PRAC) in 2018, their utilization has plummeted down to ~6% in human health and ~2% in food production ⁵⁶. Notable molecules in this family of antibiotics includes ciprofloxacin, levofloxacin and norfloxacin, used against a large panel of Gram-negative (including Pseudomonas aeruginosa) and Gram-positive bacteria (including Staphylococcus aureus); their activity as antibacterial agents rely on their interaction with topoisomerase II (DNA gyrase), which prevents DNA replication. This class of molecules rapidly caused the emergence of resistance in bacteria ⁵⁷. It therefore makes sense to find quinolone resistance genes among the prevalent ARGs in the environment. The other main classes of antibiotic resistance, namely β-lactamases, sulfonamides, vancomycin, macrolide and tetracycline, were relatively more abundant in "Continental" clouds. While this partly results from a relative decrease of the amounts quinolones resistance genes, it also suggests continental surfaces as their main sources. Table 2 summarizes antibiotic consumption for 29 countries in Europe for human and veterinary usages ⁵⁶. Veterinary usages contribute ~61.4% (6558 tons of active products) of the total antibiotics market, versus ~ 38.6% for human health (4122 tons) ⁵⁶. Most antibiotics related to human health are expected to be caught by waste water treatment systems, where removal efficiency

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has been estimated to reach up to 76% of the inputs ⁵⁸, with variations depending on compounds ⁵⁹. If we omit the gene *qepA*, which we related to oceanic inputs as mentioned previously, we found a fairly good agreement between the relative abundances of antimicrobial functions observed in clouds and the proportions of the different families of molecules used in the various countries. For instance, the highest concentration of ARGs were observed on 10-Nov-20 in an air mass that flew over Spain. This country is the biggest purchaser of antibiotic products for veterinary purposes in Europe (~ 1,244 tons of active substance ⁶⁰). More local sources should also largely contribute to our observations. Accordingly, sulfonamides and macrolides, which represent 21.7 % and 12.3%, respectively, of the veterinary antibiotics sold in France ^{61,62}; accordingly, represented on average 21.5% and 13.9% of the total ARGs quantified in our samples. However, resistance to tetracycline was found at lower proportions than could be expected from such extrapolations. This may relate with seasonal variations, as observed in rivers with the lowest abundance of *tetA*, *tetC* and *tetM* during winter than the rest of the year ⁶³.

The selective advantage of ARGs in clouds could promote their maintenance in the

environment

There are increasing reports of the presence of multi-resistant bacteria in the environment, and this represents one of the most worrisome threats to human societies nowadays. In our work, although multi-resistance was not specifically addressed, we found ARGs at higher abundance than bacteria cell by a factor of 5 in \sim 60% (7/12) of the samples. As the samples were filtered through 0.22 μ m porosity before analysis, viruses and cell-free DNA fragments (i.e., external DNA, bacteriophage-associated DNA, and membrane vesicle-associated DNA) were excluded. However, they are known to have critical roles in horizontal gene transfer and dispersal including ARGs 66,67 . Viruses for example, exhibit high proportions of ARGs in

their genome, with a strong prevalence of antibiotic efflux mechanism ⁶⁸ Overall, these evidences the presence of multiple ARG copies in genomes and possibly multiple resistance combined together within single cells, and this was particularly true for "Marine" clouds. Such prevalence of antimicrobial resistance genes is most likely a combination of both intrinsic and acquired resistance, i.e. of ARGs carried by both chromosomes and plasmids; the methods used here do not allow distinguishing them.

Many ARGs such as the efflux pump *qepA* are involved in global stress regulation as already mentioned. We propose that these functions could participate to the survival of bacteria in clouds, which would in turn contribute to global spread. Clouds are indeed depicted as particularly harsh environments, selective for the most efficient multiple-stress response phenotypes ^{69–71}. Metatranscriptomics indicated the expression of biological responses to stress, including defense mechanisms like elevated transmembrane transports, binding activities and protein phosphorylation ²⁴. The selective advantage of carrying ARGs such as the efflux pump *qepA* in clouds could therefore contribute to their maintenance and spread in the environment, even in the absence of such antimicrobial molecules. A connection between antibiotic resistance acquisition and bacterial aerosolization was even recently established ⁴¹. More specifically, the osmotic and desiccative stresses caused by aerosolization triggered an immediate response to antibiotic compounds targeting cell wall and protein synthesis (Cephalothin and Gentamicin) in *Escherichia coli*.

Global ARGs Dispersal

Based on our current dataset, that compiles 12 clouds with various geographical origins, we attempt here to provide an evaluation of the global contribution of clouds in antimicrobial genes dispersal (Table 3). The ARG concentrations observed in clouds were expressed as

copies m⁻³ of cloudy air, based on sampling times and sampler's air flow rate corrected for the altitude of puy de Dôme (1465 m). Considering an average volume of clouds within the first 6 km above the Earth of 4.66 10¹⁷ m³ ⁷² and assuming ARGs concentrations similar as in our study (5.42 10³ copies of ARGs m⁻³ of air), we estimate that globally clouds carry in permanence ~2.53×10²¹ copies of ARGs. Annually, this would represent fluxes of ~1.29×10²⁵ to ~2.06×10²⁶ copies of ARGs transiting through clouds. Assuming a cloud precipitation rate of 4.10 10²⁰ m³ year⁻¹ ⁷², approximately ~2.2×10²⁴ copies would get precipitated to the Earth surface by wet processes every year, while the remaining fraction can be expected to evaporate and remain airborne. These estimations are based on a limited number of events collected at a very specific location, but there can be strong spatial and temporal variation as emphasized previously. Still, since we considered only clouds (i.e. ~15% of the atmospheric volume) and did not account for below-cloud aerosol scavenging processes by precipitation, and that we did not account for all known ARGs, these probably represent low estimates of the total actual inputs of ARGs from the atmosphere.

Conclusion

In this study, we evidenced for the first time the presence of microbial ARGs in clouds at concentrations comparable to other natural environments. Using a unique dataset composed of 12 events sampled over more than a year and originating from very different geographical origins, our results highlights that clouds' resistome can be viewed as a mosaic composed of antibiotic resistance from both distant origins and local landscapes. More specifically, a strong Atlantic Ocean signature was observed in most of the clouds, as shown by the predominance of the of qepA efflux pump, that decreased as the air masses flew over continental surfaces, to the benefit of antibiotic resistance in relation with the consumption of antibiotics in food-producing animals, such as β -lactamase, tetracycline and macrolide

resistance. Overall, our results point out clouds as a tremendous potential reservoir of ARGs within the environment, and highlights the high atmosphere as routes for the dissemination of ARGs at a large scale.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Authors' contribution

Caroline Duchaine, Nathalie Turgeon and Pierre Amato secured the funding. Caroline Duchaine and Pierre Amato designed the experimental setup and defined the goal of the study. Jean-Luc Baray and Laurent Deguillaume organized field sampling at the puy de Dôme station. Florent Rossi, Raphaëlle Péguilhan and Laurent Deguillaume sampled the clouds. Florent Rossi performed the ARGs monitoring, analyzed the results and produced the first draft of the manuscript. Jean-Luc Baray performed the atmospheric back-trajectories calculation and analysis. Marc Veillette and Nathalie Turgeon contributed significantly to the design of the qPCR and provided key information in data treatment and in the understanding of the results. All authors contributed significantly to the writing and the reviewing of the manuscript.

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Quantification of Antibiotic Resistance Genes (ARGs) in Clouds at a Mountain Site (puy de Dôme, Central France)

Tables and Figures

<u>Table 1:</u> Concentrations of antimicrobial resistance genes (ARGs) and bacteria cells in cloud water (mL⁻¹ of water) in the 12 cloud events investigated. The concentrations of the main families of ARGs are displayed along with their means (\pm SEM; n=12) and median values. Statistical differences between families of ARGs are highlighted by the subscript (a > b > c > d, pairwise comparison, P < 0.05). N.D. = not detected (Ct > 37) and N.A. = not acquired (missing value).

Cloud	Quinolones	Aminoglycosides	Macrolides	Sulfonamide	Tetracycline	β -Lactamase	Vancomycin	Transposase	Total ARGs	Total Bacteria
sampling date				Gene cop	pies ml ⁻¹ of cloud	d water				Cell ml ⁻¹ of cloud water
22-Oct-19	$1.46\ 10^3$	$2.69 \cdot 10^{-1}$	7.21 10	6.19 10 ²	4.96 10 ²	$6.17\ 10^2$	3.40 102	1.57 10	3.62 10 ³	3.32 10
11-Mar-20	$1.40\ 10^4$	$4.78 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$2.14\ 10^2$	9.40 102	8.44 10 ²	$2.92 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$1.02\ 10^3$	N.D.	$1.70\ 10^4$	3.1810^3
17-Jul-20	$1.81\ 10^4$	2.6	1.21 10	$2.30\ 10^3$	$1.19\ 10^{^{3}}$	$1.19\ 10^{^{1}}$	$2.06\ 10^3$	N.D.	3.58 10	N.A.
16-Oct-20	$1.71\ 10^3$	N.D.	5.81 10	N.D.	$2.43\ 10^{^{1}}$	3.50 10 ³	8.50 10 ²	N.D.	$6.14\ 10^3$	7.70 10 ³
28-Oct-20	9.17 10 ³	9.94 10 ⁻¹	$1.82\ 10^2$	9.39 10 ²	9.58 10 ²	$6.79\ 10^{^{1}}$	$1.76\ 10^3$	N.D.	$1.31\ 10^4$	9.96 10 ³
03-Nov-20	$4.90\ 10^4$	4.67	$1.18\ 10^2$	$1.67\ 10^3$	$2.24\ 10^3$	$4.80\ 10^3$	5.64 10 ³	3.65	$6.35\ 10^4$	$1.06\ 10^4$
10-Nov-20	$2.18\ 10^4$	3.3	2.95 10	$1.29\ 10^3$	$4.42\ 10^2$	4.07	$1.16\ 10^4$	N.D.	$6.47\ 10^4$	5.53 10 ³
19-Nov-20	5.74 10 ³	$1.78 \cdot 10^{-1}$	8.00 10	7.55 10 ²	$1.27\ 10^2$	$1.19\ 10^3$	$1.75\ 10^3$	4.43	9.65 10 ³	3.33 102
28-Apr-21.	$2.69\ 10^2$	$6.14\ 10^{-2}$	N.D.	$2.24\ 10^3$	9.39 10 ²	N.D.	N.D.	$2.60 \ 10^{-1}$	3.45 10 ³	1.33 10
06-May-21	5.20 10 ³	$6.33 \cdot 10^{-2}$	N.D.	N.D.	2.05 102	N.D.	$4.90\ 10^2$	N.D.	5.89 10 ³	$1.19\ 10^{^{3}}$
13-Oct-21	$1.32\ 10^4$	3.36 10 ⁻¹	$7.73\ 10^2$	3.97 10 ³	$6.32\ 10^2$	N.D.	$1.23\ 10^3$	6.12	$1.98\ 10^4$	$1.36\ 10^3$
26-Oct-21	3.00 10 ³	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	8.23 10	3.58 103	N.D.	N.D.	6.67 10 ³	1.63 10

Median	$7.45\ 10^3\ a$	$3.03 \ 10^{-1}$ cd	9.91 10 ¹ bc	9.39 10 ² bc	$5.64\ 10^2\ \mathbf{b}$	3.99 10 ¹ bc	$1.12\ 10^3\ \mathbf{b}$	0 d	$1.14\ 10^4$	5.53 10 ³
Mean ± SEM	$1.19 \ 10^4 \pm 3.93$	$1.08 \pm 4.52 10^{-1}$	$3.60 \ 10^3 \pm 2.56$	$1.23 \ 10^3 \pm 3.39$	$6.82\ 10^{2} \pm 1.80$ 10^{2}	$1.15 \cdot 10^3 \pm 5.08$	$2.23 \ 10^3 \pm 9.54$	2.51 ± 1.35	$2.08 \ 10^4 \pm 6.40$	$8.00\ 10^3 \pm 2.85\ 10^3$

<u>Table 2</u>: Proportions of the main families of antibiotics used over Europe (29 countries, human and veterinary usages; from JIACRA III (2021), and relative abundances observed in clouds (this study).

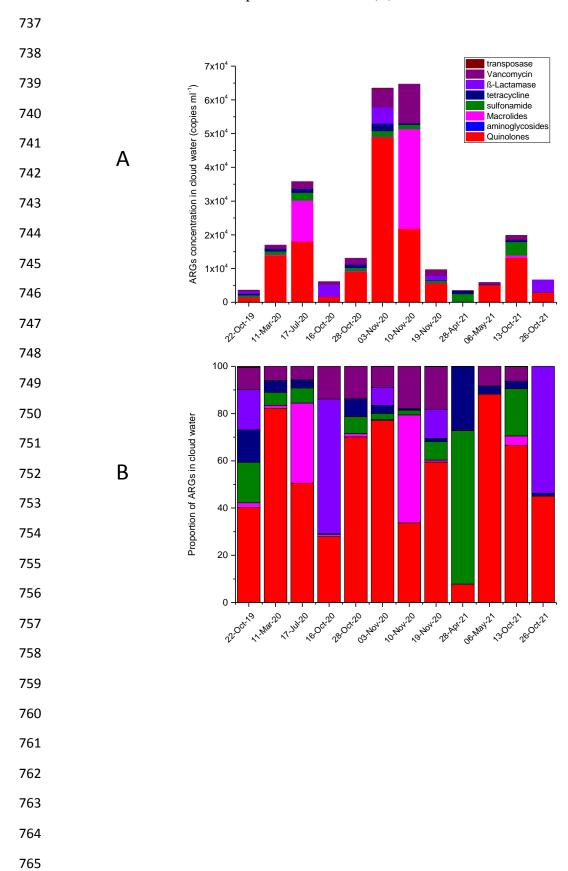
Families of Antibiotics	1	ntibiotic usages in rope	Relative abundance in clouds (this study)							
		Food-producing -		With qepA			Without qepA			
	Human Health	animals	Continental clouds	Marine clouds	All clouds	Continental clouds	Marine clouds	All clouds		
β-lactamases	54.1%	24.3%	14.8%	10.6%	12.3%	21.8%	21.4%	21.6%		
Quinolones	5.9%	2.6%	32.0%	69.8%	54.0%	0.7%	3.7%	2.4%		
Sulfonamides	3.5%	9.1%	18.1%	6.2%	11.1%	22.9%	20.5%	21.5%		
Glycopeptides (vancomycin)	< 7%	< 1%	9.4%	8.7%	8.9%	14.6%	35.8%	26.3%		
macrolides	6.1%	7.4%	16.5%	1.0%	7.5%	28.2%	3.7%	13.9%		
tetracyclines	2.4%	30.5%	9.0%	3.6%	5.9%	12.1%	15.5%	14.0%		
aminoglycosides	0.2%	4.6%	< 0.1%	< 0.1%	< 0.1%	< 0.1%	< 0.1%	< 0.1%		

Table 3: Global estimates of ARGs in clouds. Data for clouds (upper part of the Table) are
 estimates from Pruppacher and Jaenicke (1995).

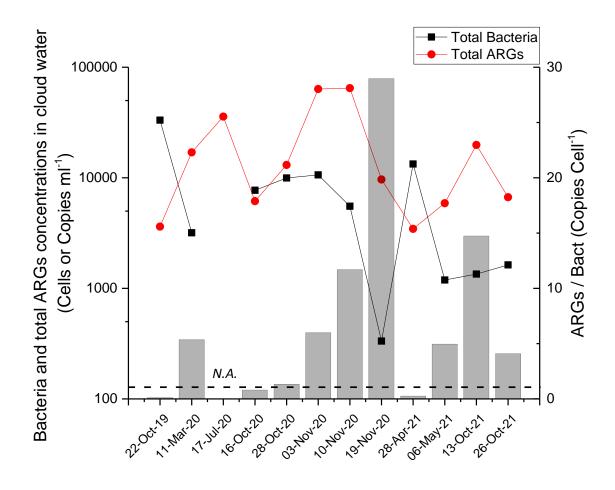
	Average	min	max	Unit
Volume fraction of clouds in the first 6 km	15.53	-	-	%
Volume of the first 6 km of the atmosphere	3.00 10	-	-	$\stackrel{3}{m}$
Total volume of clouds in the first 6 km	4.66 10	-	-	$\stackrel{3}{m}$
Cloud precipitation rate	$4.10 10^{20}$	-	-	m year
ARGs concentration in clouds	5.42 10 ³	1.01 10 ³	1.61 10	copies m ⁻³

ARGs transiting in clouds	2.53 10 ²¹	4.71 10 ²⁰	7.51 10 ²¹	copies
Total ARGs transiting in clouds every year	$6.94\ 10^{25}$	$1.29\ 10^{25}$	$2.06\ 10^{26}$	copies year
Average precipitation rates of ARGs	$2.22\ 10^{^{24}}$	4.14 10 24	6.61 10 24	copies year

<u>Figure 1:</u> Concentrations of the different families of ARGs in the 12 clouds (A) and their relative contributions to the pool of total ARGs (B).



<u>Figure 2:</u> Total concentration of ARGs and bacteria in the 12 clouds (left axis; dots / squares and lines) and the estimated numbers of ARGs normalized to that of bacterial cells (right axis; grey bars). An ARGs per bacterial cells ratio of 1 is indicated by the dotted line. N.A. =not available (missing value).



<u>Figure 3</u>: Partial least square regression (plsr) plot of the 12 cloud events based on environmental variables. (**A**) Representation of individual clouds, where groups of samples classified as "Continental" (red), "Marine high" (blue) and "Marine low" (grey) based on backward trajectories are highlighted by ellipses at 95% confidence level. (**B**) Correlation plot of the plsr: predictors (origin and altitude of the air mass in the 72-hours preceding sampling) are represented in black, and responses (families of ARGs) in blue.

