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Can the legacy of industrial pollution influence antimicrobial resistance in estuarine sediments?

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Abstract

Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) represents a major global health threat, as well as a major hazard to sustainable economic development and national security. It remains, therefore, vital that current research aligns to policy development and implementation to alleviate a potential crisis. One must consider, for example, whether drivers of antibiotic resistance can be controlled in the future, or have they already accumulated in the past? Whether from antibiotics and/or other pollutants. Unfortunately, industrial heritage and its pollution impact on the prevalence of environmental AMR have largely been ignored. Focussing on industrialised estuaries we demonstrate that anthropogenic pollution inputs in addition to the natural diurnal environmental conditions can sufficiently create stressful conditions to the microbiome, and thus promote selective pressures to shift the resistome (i.e., collection of resistance traits in the microbiological community). Unfortunately, the bacteria's survival mechanisms, via co-selective pressures, can affect their susceptibility to antibiotics. This review highlights the complexity of estuarine environments, using two key contaminant groups (Metals/toxic elements and Polyaromatic hydrocarbons), through which a variety of possible chemical and biological pollutant stressors can promote the emergence and dissemination of antimicrobial resistance. We find compelling divers to call on more focused research on historically disrupted ecosystems, in propagating AMR in the real world.

1.0 Introduction

The development of bacterial antimicrobial resistance (AMR) represents a central contributor to ecosystem-mediate health impacts (Munita and Arias, 2016). However, these “superbugs” not only develop from exposure to antibiotics, but also, among other factors, exposure to natural and anthropogenic conditions in their environment. As a survival strategy, some bacteria can acquire genes as an attempt to resist the stressors—e.g., SOS response (Beaber, et al. 2004). Any acquired, or developed, resistance traits proven beneficially effective to their survival becomes retained in future generations and increases the prevalence of resistance genes within a single population. However, there are cases where resistance genes can become horizontally transferred on genetic elements to other bacteria; the unfortunate consequence is that recipient bacteria could be pathogenic. This, in summary, highlights the possibility that stressed bacteria could trigger genetic exchanges, which may ultimately lead to increased antibiotic resistance.

Antibiotics are pharmaceutical products used to fight bacterial infections and are considered a type of antimicrobial; sub-inhibitory exposures to antibiotics can result in bacteria developing

1 a resistance as a natural adaptive reaction (European Centre for Disease Prevention and
2 Control, 2014, Lemire et al., 2013, Bernier and Surette, 2013). Furthermore this can be
3 applicable to other microorganisms such as fungi, viruses and some parasites, which
4 collectively would be referred to as resistant organisms (World Health Organization, 2016).
5 These are known to be the cause of antimicrobial resistance.
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7 Furthermore there has been an increase in pharmaceutical products within effluent introduced
8 into water bodies (Larsson, 2014), industrial effluent and pollution can be considered a major
9 contributor to ARG presence which is discussed below.
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11 Here, we focus on the conditions within estuaries and how they may stress the bacteria. The
12 determination of AMR development (or retention) in estuarine systems is critical as they often
13 represent highly impacted sensitive ecosystems: 1) they have historically been chosen for
14 industrial and shipping activities; 2) they represent a major receptors and conveyors of
15 pollutants that could, either currently or in the future, threaten public or aqua-cultural health;
16 3) the confluence of marine and fresh waters continuously change in water properties, which
17 can ecologically impact the microbiomes (communities of microorganisms) with a range of
18 sedimentary and geochemical conditions; and 4) the intertidal zones are globally the most
19 densely populated regions (Martinez et al. 2007).
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25 In many developed nations, contemporary regulations help limit discharges into major
26 estuaries, and many systems have (at least) begun the process towards ecological recovery.
27 However, issues of legacy pollutants, which have been deposited and accumulated from past
28 anthropogenic activities, often remain. People tend to investigate, remediate and minimise the
29 risks associated with their chemical toxicity but often ignored (or not considered) are the
30 biological risks that tend to be associated with past microbial depositions, but also their chronic
31 exposure and adaptations to pollutants. **Should we be concerned with increased bacterial
32 risks due to legacy pollution—in particular, towards the development and
33 dissemination of antimicrobial resistance?**
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37 It is no longer acceptable to state that AMR solely prevails from the selective pressures of
38 antibiotics. Anthropogenic pollution “stress” and geochemical conditions promote genetic
39 dissemination by cross and or co-resistance (Knapp et al., 2017, Ashbolt et al., 2013, Berg et
40 al., 2010, Wright et al., 2006). As such, in this review, we examine the factors that contribute
41 to antimicrobial resistance in environmental bacteria and whether pollution conditions in the
42 estuarine environment could have an impact. We pay particular attention to the possible
43 impact of legacy pollution, which may be: either ignored or unknown; assumed remediated or
44 contained; or remain technologically or economically infeasible to treat.
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50 **2.0 Industrial pollution in estuaries**

51 Industrial activity, whether contemporary or historical, have often occurred along major
52 watercourses. However, adverse impacts include impaired water quality, habitat loss
53 and diminished resources which results into poor water quality, deleterious changes in
54 ecosystem structure and trophic dynamics, and risks to human and aquaculture health.
55 Examples of investigations of historical environmental pollution events have included:
56 The Clyde (Scotland), Nerbioi-Ibaizabal (Spain), Gironde (France) and Australian
57 estuaries (Hursthouse et al., 1994, Birch et al., 2015, Rodriguez-Iruretagoiena et al.,
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1 2016, Larrose et al., 2010, Petit et al., 2015). On the Clyde and its tributaries, subsurface
2 coal and ironstone mining, ship-building, textiles, chemical production and paper and
3 engineering industries have all had a significant environmental impact on sediment quality
4 during the conurbation of Glasgow in the 19th and 20th centuries (Edgar et al., 1999; 2003).
5 Consequently, the river Clyde has received pollution from the onset of the Industrial Revolution
6 (AD 1770) up to the present day (Edgar et al. 2006, Vane et al. 2007; 2010), resulting in
7 elevated PAH (polycyclic aromatic compounds) and PTE (potentially toxic elements; e.g.,
8 metal) concentrations.
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11 Sediments are often considered “windows to the past.” Deposition layers are created over
12 time with distinct compositional changes and can highlight environmental conditions; e.g., the
13 abundance and composition of siliceous diatom shells in sectioned sediments determine
14 carbon dioxide trends (Friedlingstein et al., 2006). A relevant example are persistent toxic
15 pollutants (e.g., metals) that can be linked to industrialisation as they do not degrade, and are
16 not easily mobilised in the sediment layers (Jordi, 2016, Farmer, 1991, Strzebońska et al.,
17 2017). As such, legacy pollution involves layers of enhanced levels of contaminants from
18 known human activities. They have been investigated to identify responsible parties for past
19 discharges that have become a societal burden and require remediation—for example, Cu
20 (copper), Mn (manganese) and As (arsenic) from abandoned brownfield sites (e.g.,
21 Castlebridge-colliery in Alloa, Scotland) and historical industries such as shipyards produce a
22 variety of PTEs, oils, detergents and particulate matter (Papaioannou, 2003, Oecd, 2010).
23 Additionally, legacy pollutants could include diffuse emissions representing a particular era of
24 human activity, e.g., Pb (lead) from aerially deposited, widely dispersed combustion processes
25 or mishandling of tetraethyllead-amended petrol.
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32 The existence of pollutants within wider environmental systems, in addition to increasing levels
33 of discharge, are considered important contributing factors influencing antimicrobial resistance
34 (Singer, 2017). Their fate and bioavailability to the microorganisms depend on environmental
35 conditions, the chemical nature of the compound (e.g., sorption constant K_d), affinities to
36 minerals (e.g. Fe-Mn oxides and/or organic matter; (Peng et al., 2008, Konhauser et al.,
37 2002, Akcil et al., 2015, Zaaboub et al., 2015), sediment properties (e.g., grain size, surface
38 area to volume ratio, fine-grained sediments accumulate higher concentrations due to their
39 greater surface area; (Eggleton and Thomas, 2004), and additionally the composition and
40 nature of the bacterial populations, and their innate abilities to resist and/or adapt to pollutant
41 exposure.
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47 **3.0 Dynamic nature of environmental conditions**

48 **3.1 Potentially toxic elements (PTEs)**

49 A number of PTEs (e.g., arsenic (As), cadmium (Cd), chromium (Cr), copper (Cu), mercury
50 (Hg), iron (Fe), nickel (Ni), lead (Pb) and zinc (Zn)) (Besta et al., 2013) are included within the
51 Water Framework Directive (2000/60/EC), and are classified as ‘priority substances’ or ‘priority
52 hazardous substances’ in Annex II of Environmental Quality Standards Directive
53 (2008/105/EC) (as amended by 2013/39/EU), and appear on the ‘key pollutant’ list of the
54 European Pollutant Release and Transfer Register (Cuculić et al., 2009, Khan et al., 2017,
55 Larrose et al., 2010). Inputs of PTEs to an estuary depend on the (i) catchment area, (ii)
56 geological and soil erosion, (iii) precipitation reactions e.g. Fe/Mn oxides with organic matter,
57 and (ii) industry (Table 1). Although these elements are associated with anthropogenic stress
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1 on environmental systems, it has been reported that the major PTEs that affect estuarine
2 health are Pb, Cu and Zn (Birch et al., 2015); these have previously been found to be the triad
3 of PTEs associated with anthropogenic influence in other ecosystems (McClellan et al., 2013).

4
5 Using a 'metal enrichment index' to determine the magnitude of anthropogenic induced
6 change, Birch *et al* (2015) found that human influence on estuarine health is more greatly
7 impacted by high population density than high population; however, this is not always the case
8 as industrial areas (i.e., intense, localised activity with low population density) will exhibit
9 greater anthropogenic influence. Alongside the industrial emissions, infrastructure
10 development affects the hydrodynamic and sedimentation patterns and conditions, therefore,
11 will affect the sediment sorption and pollutant dispersal (Legorburu et al., 2013).

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14 The highest concentrations of PTEs in sediments are found within the 'convergence zone'
15 between fresh water and marine water (i.e., within an estuary) due to the high turbidity (PTE
16 sorption to suspended particulate matter) and pH, which affects solubility, sorption and
17 precipitation reactions (Caccia et al., 2003, Berner and Berner, 2012, Petit et al., 2015). The
18 association with the solid phase determines bioavailability and re-dissolution to the water
19 column with mobility and bioavailability in the order of Mn > Cu > Zn > Fe (Palleiro et al., 2016,
20 Rodriguez-Iruretagoiena et al., 2016) suggesting that, based on natural versus human PTEs,
21 anthropogenic inputs create greater environmental stress on sediment biota.

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24 Determining the PTE source in estuarine sediments can be difficult due to (i) different sources
25 for the same PTE, (ii) bio-turbation between aerobic and anaerobic horizons, (iii) continual
26 mixing of top most sediment layer, (iv) changing sediment inputs during seasonal changes
27 and (v) dredging and bank restoration disrupting systems and bringing buried contamination
28 to the surface and interfering with legacy tracking (Legorburu et al., 2013, Uncles et al., 2014).
29 Often, multivariate approaches such as principal component analysis (PCA) is used, which
30 allows us to correlate data according to cluster analysis, to elucidate inputs on a site-specific
31 basis.

32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 **3.2 Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs)**

40 PAHs are recalcitrant organic compounds that consist of conjoined aromatic rings; they are
41 ubiquitous in the environment (Bosch et al., 2015, Choi et al., 2013) and have pyrogenic,
42 petrogenic and biological sources. Pyrogenic PAHs are formed in high temperature (>350°C),
43 low oxygen conditions; biological PAHs are formed during degradation of vegetation material.
44 Petrogenic PAHs are associated with oil maturation process, and major sources in the
45 environment are from oil spills and releases of petroleum, oil and other transportation materials
46 (Abdel-Shafy and Mansour, 2016). There are hundreds of PAHs, although the 'US EPA 16'
47 are the most commonly studied in environmental systems: naphthalene, acenaphthylene,
48 fluorine, phenanthrene, anthracene, fluoranthene, pyrene, benz[a]anthracene, chrysene,
49 benzo[b]fluoranthene, benzo[k]fluoranthene, benzo[a]pyrene, benzo[g,h,i]perylene,
50 dibenz[a,h]anthracene, and indeno[1,2,3-c,d]pyrene; a number of these are listed as 'Priority
51 Hazardous Substance' list (2008/105/EC as amended), including: anthracene,
52 benzo[a]pyrene, benzo[b]fluoranthene, benzo[g,h,i]perylene, benzo[k]fluoranthene,
53 indeno[1,2,3-c,d]pyrene and naphthalene.

1 The number of rings reflects the origin from which they were derived; i.e., lower molecular
2 weight compounds are typically natural in origin, whilst higher weights tend to be
3 anthropogenic (Yan et al., 2009a). Studies have shown that “total PAH” concentrations (i.e.,
4 summation of US EPA 16) often increase with sediment depth (Curtosi et al., 2007, Ke et al.,
5 2005) and that up to 89% of these PAHs consisted of four–six rings at all depths (Li et al.,
6 2009)—i.e. anthropogenic sources. Furthermore, PAHs have been proven to increase in
7 industrial areas (Huston et al., 2009). “Total PAH” abundances have been quoted to vary
8 greatly across the world with Scottish sediment studies ranging 150 - >750 $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ (Webster
9 et al., 2001), estuary sediments in Mexico 27 - 418 $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ (Jaward et al., 2012) and dry
10 sediments in Japan 21 – 1447 $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ (Onozato et al., 2016).

13 PAHs have a high tendency to bio-accumulate and cause eco-toxicological concerns
14 (Schwarzenbach et al., 2003, Sawulski et al., 2014, Atsdr, 2005). As a consequence, they
15 have been extensively studied to better understand their environmental fate, distribution and
16 effects, (Haftka, 2009, Pavlova and Ivanova, 2003). The environmental origin of PAHs in
17 sediments typically comes from atmospheric mixtures (and particulate matter – soot),
18 consisting of four rings or more that readily adsorb onto particulate matter and subsequently
19 become deposited into sediment due to weak water solubility (Skupinska et al., 2004).

23 As a consequence of their non-polar structures, they are unlikely to dissolve in waters.
24 Hydrophobicity increases with the number of aromatic rings and larger PAHs which have a
25 potential anthropogenic source are less environmentally mobile and bioavailable or subject to
26 microbial degradation (Sawulski et al., 2014). Further, in estuarine (and other) systems, the
27 dissolved organic matter (DOM) is the driving force for the absorption of hydrophobic
28 pollutants, and changes in salinity affects the movement of DOM. Increasing salinity causes
29 DOM to partition from water to sediments, and vice versa (Kafilzadeh, 2015, Li et al., 2009,
30 Chapman and Wang, 2001).

34 Conversely, smaller PAHs are more soluble and will be bioavailable to biota through presence
35 in pore water (Abdel-Shafy and Mansour, 2016). PAH degradation into smaller ringed
36 structures allows them to become either bio-available or become part of the pore water matrix
37 and becoming adsorbed onto colloidal organic matter and accumulate in sediment
38 concentrations (Abdel-Shafy and Mansour, 2016, Jelena and Maja 2017). Furthermore, their
39 bioavailability can also be dictated according to source and PAH species, e.g., PAHs from oil
40 spills are more available in comparison to those from coal (Wang et al., 2014).

45 Their environmental behaviour and toxic effects have made them priority substances
46 according to the Water Framework Directive (WFD) (Nikolaou et al., 2009), but effects are
47 PAH specific. For example benzo[a]pyrene, originally isolated from coal tar in the 1930s has
48 been linked with carcinogenic properties and been linked to lung cancer (Kasala et al., 2015).
49 Research also shows that certain PAH metabolites can interact with DNA and are genotoxic
50 causing negative and heritable genetic damage (Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease
51 Registry, 2012). Some have also been highlighted with potentially carcinogenic properties,
52 e.g., benzo[a]anthracene, chrysene, benzo[b]fluoranthene, benzo[a]pyrene and
53 benzo[g,h,i]perylene.

57 The source identification of PAHs in sedimentary environments has proven difficult to
58 determine, as the individual compounds cannot easily be distinguished from natural or
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1 anthropogenic sources. Typically PAH markers (Stogiannidis and Laane, 2015), PAH-ratio
2 methods (Yan et al., 2009b), multivariate analysis (Jang et al., 2013) or isotope ratio mass
3 spectrometry (Philp, 2007) have been used with the potential to relate to historical industrial
4 pollution (Ma et al., 2016).
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7 **3.3 Sediment microbiome**

8 The co-discipline of sediment microbiology is concerned with microscopic and macroscopic
9 organisms, including: bacteria, protozoa, fungus, algae and soil-dwelling invertebrates
10 (mesofauna) (Paul and Clark, 1989) dwelling in sediments down to 2m (Table 2). Microbial
11 communities are found in habitats as diverse as environmental systems (the microbiome) in
12 the human body, and often with similar interspecies interaction relationships (Drissi et al.,
13 1995). This causes increased concerns that this can become linked to the increased spread
14 and evolution of AMR in the microbiome.
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18 Bacteria form the majority of sediment biomass and are well suited to a sedimentary
19 environment as their size, metabolic versatility, and their collectively diverse nutrient and redox
20 capabilities allow them to flourish in equally diverse environments (Nealson, 1997). Numerous
21 conditions affect the presence and quantity of microbial communities (including those species
22 with antimicrobial resistant genes (ARGs) present), and the knowledge of expected key
23 community characteristics can be linked to their responses to physicochemical properties
24 (e.g., conductivity (EC), pH, and redox), nutritional quality (e.g., total nitrogen, phosphorus,
25 carbon and minerals), source of carbon—including organic matter (Wang et al., 2016)—and
26 pollutant conditions (including PTE and PAH content) of sediments (Figure 1). This can create
27 extreme spatial differences of species composition and community structures (Abd-El-Aziz et
28 al., 2017). Fortunately, the advent of community DNA extractions and high-throughput
29 sequencing has provided wealth of information related to this through metagenomics, whether
30 targeted (e.g., via small sub-unit rRNA or specific genes) or “shot-gun” (i.e., random).
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36 The communities (and their potential to “share”, or horizontally transfer genetic traits—
37 discussed later) are shaped biologically by their ecological interactions. However, the make-
38 up of the microbiome and its functional complexity can be likely influenced by legacy
39 exposures. Like chemical conditions, they too can be archived in the sediment layers. What
40 we will demonstrate is that past stress events, in turn, can have a major impact on the
41 microbiome, but also the resistome – the collection of genes/traits related to resistance,
42 whether latent or active.
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48 **4.0 Development of antimicrobial resistance**

49 Evolutionary processes have recently been linked with the accumulation of antimicrobial
50 resistance, which include the accumulation and selection of genetic mutations (Woodford and
51 Ellington, 2007) and development and spread of accessory plasmids. Due to difficulties in
52 cultivating sediment micro-organisms (Great Plate Anomaly), it is currently unknown how
53 many types of ARGs exist. However, the development of sequencing-based descriptive
54 metagenomic approaches has provided the means to analyse the occurrence and abundance
55 of previously unrecognised ARGs with examples of successful applications (Li et al., 2015a,
56 Monier et al., 2011, Chen et al., 2017). The extent that environmental conditions impact
57 antimicrobial resistance is becoming increasingly known.
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1 Resistance traits propagate in the presence of a stress factor, which ultimately selects
2 bacterial populations with enhanced survivability. Once a resistance trait is selected, host
3 bacteria can transfer genes between individuals creating an enhanced resistome—collection
4 of latent and active resistance traits in a community. Thus, resistance can spread among
5 microorganisms once a gene enters a system, either vertically or horizontally.
6

7 Vertical transfer involves the increase of resistance trait via inheritable traits and selective
8 pressures. Basically, populations with enhanced genetic traits that confer selective advantage
9 will likely replicate and outcompete other strains; the genes are passed on to “daughter” cells
10 during replication. In this manner, the resistance traits develop greater representation in the
11 microbiome through improved survivability and replication of specific populations.
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14 However, in many microbial communities (e.g., biofilms) the close proximity of bacteria to each
15 other, genetic material can also become horizontally exchanged among different population
16 by various mechanisms:
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- 18 • Transformation – the assimilation of free DNA, released from lysed bacteria.
- 19 • Transduction – i.e., bacterial phages (viruses) acquire pieces of host DNA and
20 transfer it to the next infected bacterial cell.
- 21 • Conjugation – the direct exchange of plasmid DNA.
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25 The increase in ARGs occurs as a consequence of its ability to spread, via transformation or
26 conjugation, between bacteria under antimicrobial stresses (Cottell et al., 2014, Turner et al.,
27 2014); this a nature of many bacteria as part of their SOS response to stress (Beaber et al.,
28 2004). Furthermore the “mobile resistome/mobilome” i.e. the ability for resistant genes to
29 associate and transfer between distantly related bacteria (Wellington et al., 2013) exacerbates
30 ARG presence in environmental matrices, and has become a greater focus among current
31 environmental-AMR research, as a potential target for the transfer of resistance traits could
32 be a pathogen.
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37 The determination of antibiotic resistance through identification of antibiotic resistance genes
38 (ARGs) has provided evidence that ARGs have been increasing in environmental systems
39 experiencing anthropogenic stress, e.g., soils, water and sediments in particular since the
40 beginning of the antibiotic era in 1940s (Chen et al., 2013, Knapp et al., 2010, Graham et al.,
41 2016). The most common entry routes for ARGs in the environment are from sewage outfall
42 (Daughton and Ternes, 1999), agricultural fertilisers (Kinney et al., 2006) and veterinary
43 pressures (Blackwell et al., 2007, Topp et al., 2008). The increasing prevalence of AMR/ARG
44 in the ‘real world’ suggests an emerging global human health concern; it is reported that by
45 2050 global annual mortality is projected to be 10 million if action is not immediately taken to
46 combat antimicrobial resistance (Shallcross et al., 2015).
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52 **4.1 Role of pollution on Resistant Genes/AMR**

53 The environmental contribution to the spread of AMR is becoming more commonly
54 recognised, and regulators are beginning to monitor pathways and controlling the release of
55 resistant-driving chemicals e.g. antimicrobials, metals and biocides (Singer et al., 2016). A
56 common type of resistance that has become a contemporary concern is resistance to
57 antibiotics, but it has recently been observed is that other substances can also select for
58 antibiotic resistance. For example, metal pollution and some persistent organic compounds
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1 co-select for antibiotic resistance genes. This *co-selection* of metal (or other) resistance and
2 antibiotic resistance can occur by one of two processes: co-resistance or cross-resistance.
3 *Co-resistance* occurs when selection of one phenotype simultaneously selects for genes on
4 the same genetic element. On the other hand, *cross-resistance* occurs when, for example, the
5 antibiotic and metal have similar paths into the cell, therefore when a resistance response is
6 triggered, cell defence is effective against both metal and antibiotic toxicants. Since metals
7 (e.g.) are also widespread in the environment (and probably in elevated concentration in zones
8 of industrial activity) and do not degrade, these toxicants can potentially provide a long-term
9 selection pressure.

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12 Like soils, sediments are considered a reservoir of antibiotic resistance bacteria (Azarbad et
13 al.) and ARGs, with a large variety of novel ARGs and RGs being frequently discovered—
14 representing different types of resistance mechanisms (Nesme and Simonet, 2015), and there
15 are anthropogenic pressures that can exacerbate this. Sources of ARB (and ARG) include the
16 discharge of improperly treated municipal wastewater treatment effluents, agricultural run-off,
17 and wildlife. The bacteria entering the waterways could become bound, and eventually
18 entombed, in the sediments and contributing to the resistome “potential”.

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22 However, estuarine systems offer additional complications. Due to the continual changes in
23 salinity, estuarine biota are subject to naturally stressful conditions and become more
24 susceptible to stress from anthropogenic pollution. With the sediments acting as both a sink
25 and source of pollutants, also switching between absorption and desorption reactions due to
26 alternating salinity changes (Chapman and Wang, 2001), indigenous bacteria repeatedly
27 become exposed to contaminants. Consequently, they develop survival strategies for stress,
28 including the enhanced transfer of mobile genetic elements. The unfortunate result is these
29 genetic exchanges could include antimicrobial resistance (AMR).

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33 Elevated antibiotic resistance (AR) is evident in environments with high levels of
34 anthropogenic stress (Chen et al., 2013, Knapp et al., 2010) which challenges the common
35 perception that AMR solely occurs as a consequence of antibiotics. A study along the
36 Almendares River/estuary, Cuba demonstrated a high level of resistant genes present despite
37 minimal use of antibiotics, both agriculturally and medically in the country; there were,
38 however, high levels of pollution including metals and other contaminants (Graham et al.,
39 2011, Reid-Henry, 2008). Unfortunately, efforts to reduce and control antibiotic use; may have
40 limited impact on AR if antibiotics are not the sole cause of AMR in environments.

46 **4.2 PTEs and AMR**

47 PTEs within environmental matrices impact microbial communities and represent important
48 vector in the maintenance and proliferation of AMR (Summers, 2002, Alonso et al., 2001,
49 Eldon and Smith, 2006). The synergistic effects of PTEs and antibiotics have also been shown
50 to influence the development of AMR (Chen et al., 2015, Baker-Austin et al., 2006). For
51 example, the co-exposure to Zn and oxytetracycline increases the microbial community’s
52 resistance towards antibiotics (Peltier et al., 2010, Besta et al., 2013). Further the presence
53 of Cu caused microbial resilience, as well as a co-resistance, to ampicillin, chloramphenicol
54 and tetracycline (Berg et al., 2005, McCluskey and Knapp, 2017). Additionally, Ni and Cd have
55 increased the frequency of bacterial resistance in microcosms to chemically unrelated
56 antibiotics including ampicillin and chloramphenicol (Stepanauskas et al., 2006). This
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1 suggests that (i) the proliferation of antibiotic resistance can be caused by the presence of
2 PTEs enhancing the enrichment of ARG in indigenous bacterial growth in the microbial
3 communities where ARGs are already present (Chen et al., 2015) or (ii) that resistance occurs
4 only in bacteria sensitive to antibiotics which in turn could be induced by synergistic effects of
5 the co-existence of PTEs (Zhu et al., 2013).
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7 PTEs such as Zn, Cu, Mn, Ni, Cr and Fe are essential nutrients for microorganisms (Lima De
8 Silva et al., 2012) and provide vital co-factors for metallo-proteins and enzymes; however,
9 once concentrations exceed 'ideal' levels, PTEs inhibit bacteria by blocking the essential
10 functional sites (Koena Sinah, 2005)—whereby metal ions become displaced from their
11 'native' binding site, causing conformation modifications of the molecules (Olaniran et al.,
12 2013). Besides diminished enzyme function, some could damage DNA. PTEs with no
13 biological role, e.g., Pb and Cd, can cause oxidative stress, lipid peroxidation and mutagenesis
14 (Oyetibo et al., 2010). Further, Cu and Zn are also commonly used antimicrobials (Poole,
15 2017).
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20 Hypothesised mechanisms for metal resistance include PTE accumulation in the form of
21 protein-metal associations, blockages at the level of the cell walls, and enhanced membrane
22 transportation (Hassen et al., 1998), sorption of metals (Chang et al., 1993; Kinkle et al., 1987),
23 and release of organic chelators (Abd-El-Aziz et al., 2017, Lemire et al., 2013). The processes
24 are complex, which are in-turn controlled by a vast variety of variables including, but not limited
25 to PTE presence, nature of environmental medium and/or the microbial species. A number of
26 potential mechanisms causing the increase of ARGs in the presence of PTEs have been
27 evidenced, including: in areas resulting from intense industrial activity (Abella et al., 2015,
28 Graham et al., 2011, Hu et al., 2016, Knapp et al., 2012, Stepanauskas et al., 2005, Wright
29 et al., 2006), wastewater treatment outflows (Knapp et al., 2012, Graham et al., 2011, Su
30 et al., 2015), run-off of agricultural wastes (Ji et al., 2012, Li et al., 2015b, Zhu et al., 2013)
31 and direct experiments (Berg et al., 2005, Berg et al., 2010, Knapp et al., 2011,
32 Stepanauskas et al., 2006).
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38 While most evidence is found in areas of elevated human impact; correlations have been
39 found in more "pristine", or baseline environmental levels, as well (Knapp et al., 2011, Knapp
40 et al., 2017). The driving force (as mentioned previously) is believed to result from co- and
41 cross-selection processes (Ashbolt et al., 2013, Baker-Austin et al., 2006, Berg et al., 2010,
42 Perry and Wright, 2013) (**Error! Reference source not found.**). Many resistance elements
43 may co-exist on a single genetic element, or bacteria will seek improved resistance traits via
44 lateral gene transfer mechanisms and receive the additional traits. Given that metals do not
45 degrade; selective pressures are likely to persist longer than pharmaceutical compounds
46 which could breakdown in the environment.
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51 **4.3 PAHs and AMR**

52 Microbial degradation has an important role in the natural attenuation of PAHs in contaminated
53 matrices (Van Dillewijn et al., 2009); however, the presence of PAHs changes the community
54 structure of indigenous bacteria with the number of hydrocarbon-degrading bacteria increases
55 with increasing available hydrocarbons (De Menezes et al., 2012, Zhang et al., 2010, Maila et
56 al., 2005); it is difficult to understand which communities are present in historically
57 contaminated sediments (Azarbad et al., 2016, Singleton et al., 2013). However, many PAH-
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1 tolerant bacterial isolates often exhibit strong resistance to metals and antibiotics (Ben Said et
2 al., 2008, Máthé et al., 2012), and ARGs have been found in PAH-contaminated matrices
3 (Chen et al., 2017, Kang et al., 2015).

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5 PAHs have mutagenic properties (Liu et al., 2017, Sun et al., 2015), which could contribute
6 towards AMR—either by directly changing DNA composition, or triggering stress/repair
7 systems. There is little knowledge of specific mechanisms, but meta-genomic profiling has
8 demonstrated that PAH-contaminated soils with ARGs in abundance approximately 15 times
9 more than those less-contaminated (Chen et al., 2017).

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12 In comparison to the number of investigations conducted examining other drivers of
13 antimicrobial resistance (e.g., pharmaceutical compounds and PTEs), there have been
14 relatively minimal studies on the effects of PAH contamination to AMR, and few prediction
15 models exist. However, research has demonstrated that naphthalene and phenanthrene
16 exposure were primarily linked to conjugative transfer of genes mediated by class I integrons
17 (Wang et al., 2017), these genetic mechanisms allow bacteria to adapt and evolve rapidly
18 through the acquisition, stockpiling and differential expression of new genes and has been
19 previously correlated with clinical antibiotic resistance (Gillings et al., 2008, Deng et al., 2015,
20 Loot et al., 2017). Genes for PTEs and ARGs have been found in bacterial plasmids and could
21 facilitate the dissemination of these genes under elevated stresses (Li et al., 2015a, Zhai et
22 al., 2016). The effect of the co-exposure is complicated; however, (Lu et al., 2014) found that
23 a moderate dosage of pyrene promote the microbial prosperity in soils and alleviating metal
24 stress. Previous studies have investigated and shown a co-exposure effect with PAHs and
25 metals which is a consequence of increased anthropogenic activities and contamination; this
26 includes the research of (Gauthier et al., 2014) who summarized that the more-than-additive
27 deleterious effects of PAHs-metal mixtures to microbes.
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35 **Conclusion**

36 The genetically diverse array of micro-organisms with their respective metabolisms, as well
37 as the complex array of environmental pollutants, i.e., PTEs, PAHs and their derivatives,
38 makes understanding their combined roles in induced antimicrobial resistance a complicated
39 task. This review highlights that PTEs and PAHs create stressful conditions to exacerbate
40 AMR in the environment and can be used as model pollutants for further public-health risks
41 related to these genetic pollutants. The effects are not just related to current pollution
42 scenarios; rather, legacy industrial effects could be lingering drivers for resistance. The
43 combined effect of various single and multiple mechanisms can be hypothesised to explain
44 the genetic mutation and development of AMR; however further exploration is required to
45 elucidate a more causal explanation. No antimicrobial agent will be efficacious forever;
46 however, by establishing a better understanding of the environmental impact and its role in
47 AMR's prevalence may aid in its control. This is critical to combat AMR growth and prevalence
48 across the world, with a target on the prospects for prevention, treatment or remediation.
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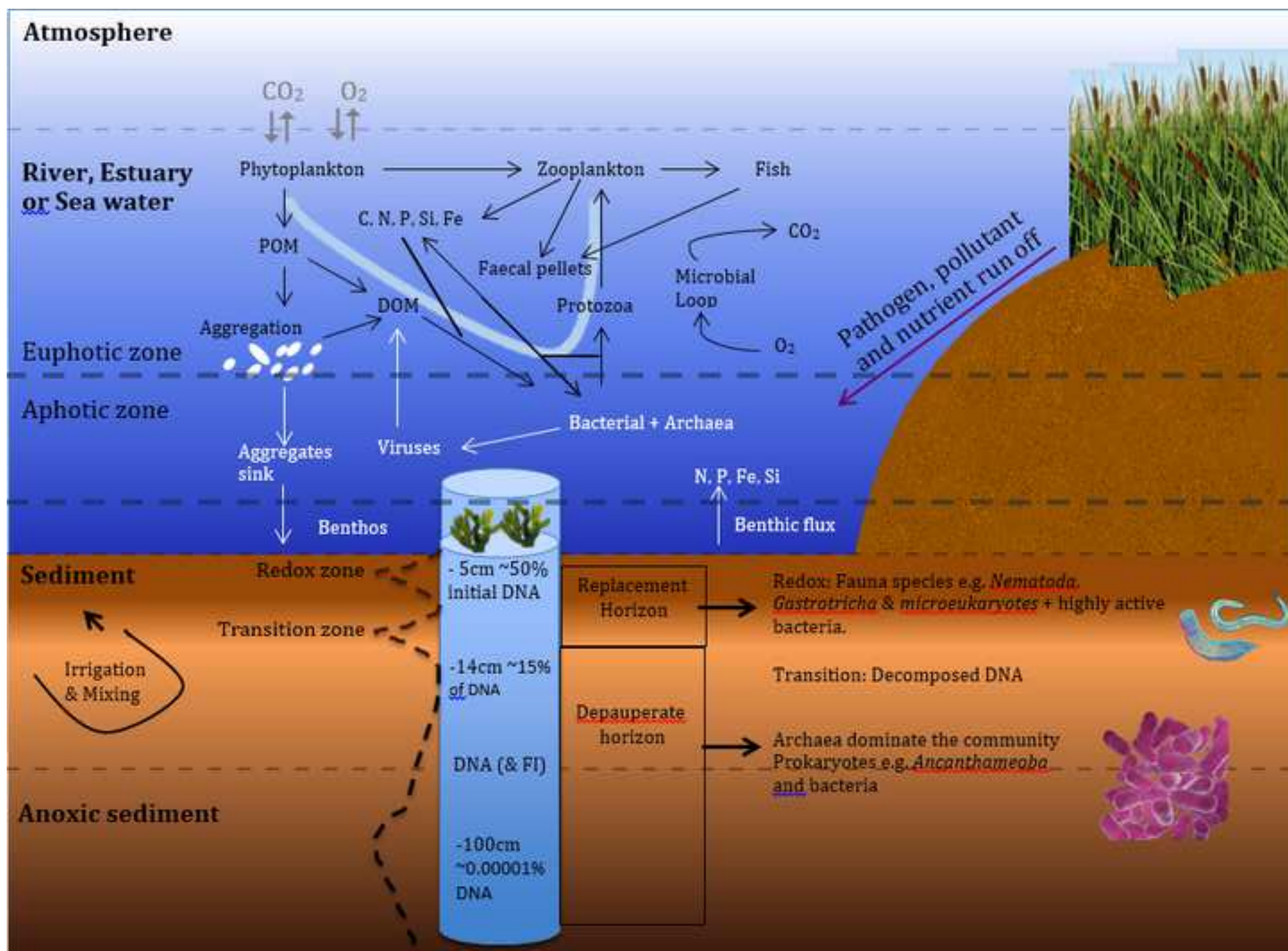
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List of figures

1
2 Figure 1: Microbial structuring of an estuary sediment. Dissolved organic matter is almost
3 exclusively taken up by bacteria and respired as CO₂ or re-introduced into the classical food
4 chain (phytoplankton, zooplankton and fish). This, in turn, alters the carbon cycle that
5 influences the microbiome as well as sediment horizons. The *redox-stratified zone* (0–5 cm)
6 includes a thin layer of oxygen where a few fauna species exist and microeukaryotes in
7 addition to large numbers of highly active Bacteria. Below 5 cm is the transition zone; here
8 50% of the DNA has already decomposed and is found below the sulfate-methane transition.
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13 Figure 1: Molecular mechanisms that can result in AMR (adapted from (Baker-Austin et al.,
14 2006, Mata et al., 2000)
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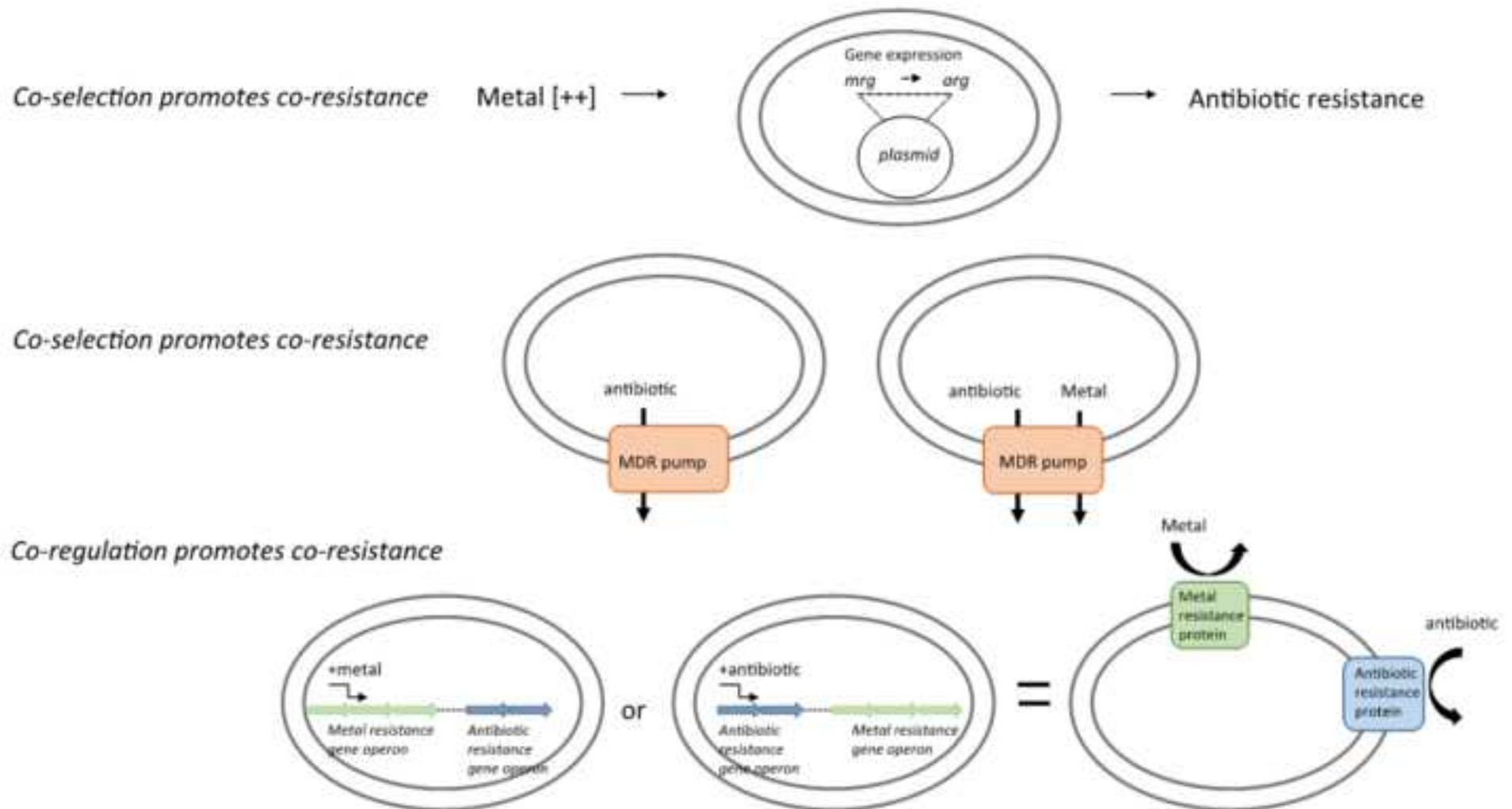


Table 1: Sources of PTEs within sediments

PTE	Source	Citation
Cr, Cu, Mn, Ni, Pb, Zn	Agriculture: fertiliser application	(Caccia et al., 2003)
Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Sn, Zn	Boat traffic	(Caccia et al., 2003)
Mn	Wastewater treatment works	(Rodriguez-Iruretagoiena et al., 2016)
Al, Co, Fe, Mg, Mn, Ni	Geology	(Birch et al., 2015)
Pb	Leaded Petrol	(Lenart-Boroń and Boroń, 2014)

Table 2: Variation of microorganism biomass with sediment depths and percentage decrease from surface adapted from (Bhattacharai et al., 2015, Fierer et al., 2003)

Depth (cm)	Microorganism Biomass (g/m ²)	% decrease
0 – 5	9.8 (1.6)	
5 – 15	4.0 (0.16)	59.18
15 – 25	2.0 (0.12)	79.59
50	0.63 (0.044)	93.57
100	0.18 (0.030)	98.16
200	0.081 (0.0053)	99.17

Note: Stratified layers of sediments accumulated over a reasonably long period of time, which can be cut in a series of successively receding flat surfaces (Velde and Barre, 2010).