| - | Title: LONGITUDINAL SURVEILLANCE AND COMBINATION ANTIMICROBIAL |
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| 2 | SUSCEPTIBILITY TESTING OF MULTIDRUG-RESISTANT ACHROMOBACTER |
| 3 | SPP. FROM CYSTIC FIBROSIS PATIENTS |
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20 Abstract

Background: Achromobacter spp. are recognized as an emerging pathogen in 21 patients with Cystic Fibrosis (CF). Though recent works have established species-22 level identification using *nrdA* sequencing, there is a dearth in knowledge relating to 23 species-level antimicrobial susceptibility patterns and antimicrobial combinations 24 25 which hampers the use of optimal antimicrobial combinations for the treatment of chronic infections. The aims of this study were i) to identify at species-level referred 26 Achromobacter isolates ii) to describe species-level antimicrobial susceptibility 27 28 profiles iii) to determine the most promising antimicrobial combination for chronic Achromobacter infections. 29

Methods: A total of 112 multidrug-resistant (MDR) *Achromobacter* spp. isolates from
 39 patients were identified using *nrdA* sequencing. Antimicrobial susceptibility and
 combination testing were carried out using the Etest method.

Results: We detected six species of Achromobacter and found that A. xylosoxidans 33 was the most prevalent species. Interestingly, sequence analysis showed it was 34 responsible for persistent infection (18/28 patients) followed by A. ruhlandii (2/3 35 patients). Piperacillin-tazobactam (70.27%) and cotrimoxazole (69.72%) were the 36 most active antimicrobials. Differences were observed in species-level susceptibility 37 to ceftazidime, carbapenems, ticarcillin-clavulanate, and tetracycline. Antimicrobial 38 combinations with cotrimoxazole or tobramycin demonstrate the best synergy while 39 cotrimoxazole gave the best susceptibility breakpoint Index values. 40

41 Conclusions: This study enriches the understanding of MDR *Achromobacter* spp.
42 epidemiology, confirms prevalence and chronic colonization of *A. xylosoxidans* in CF

- 43 lungs. It presents *in vitro* data to support the efficacy of new combinations for use in
- 44 the treatment of chronic Achromobacter infections.
- 45 Keywords: Achromobacter spp.; A. xylosoxidans; Cystic Fibrosis; Antimicrobial
- 46 susceptibility testing; Synergy testing; Etest

47 **1.0 Introduction**

Several pathogens have been reported as causing chronic infections but *Achromobacter* spp. have increasingly been implicated as causal agents of infection and colonisation in CF individuals (1-7). National CF registries have reported slight increasing rates of *Achromobacter* spp. colonisation/infection in individuals (8) varying between 2 and 17 % (9).

Achromobacter spp. are aerobic, Gram-negative, catalase- and oxidase-positive, non-fermenting bacilli that are phenotypically similar but genetically distinct and are widely distributed in the environment (5). Innate and readily acquired adaptive resistance with antimicrobial exposure thereby altering expression of certain genes promote chronic infection and this has been extensively described in literature (3). This intrinsic resistance to multiple antimicrobials limits the therapeutic options for *Achromobacter* spp. infections (5, 6).

The clinical relevance of isolation of *Achromobacter* spp. in the sputum of CF patients is unclear. Some studies have proposed a link between decline of lung function and chronic infection by *Achromobacter xylosoxidans* especially in patients with chronic *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* infections (10). Others on the other hand postulate that the biofilm-forming ability of *Achromobacter xylosoxidans* correlates with poor lung function (11).

A. xylosoxidans is the most frequently isolated species from clinical samples but there are known difficulties associated with the species identification of *Achromobacter* isolates (9, 12). Conventional identification methods such as 69 biochemical test, or indeed mass spectrometry, were shown to lack the optimal discriminatory power needed to characterise Achromobacter isolates at species-level 70 (1, 13, 14). However, Spilker et al. (15, 16) reported characterization of new 71 Achromobacter species through sequencing of the nrdA housekeeping gene. 72 Characterisation of Achromobacter clinical isolates at the species-level and its 73 74 relationship with antimicrobial resistance profiles is expected to increase our understanding of the clinical relevance of colonisation by this seemingly CF-related 75 bacterium (1). 76

77 The aims of this present study were:

i) To identify at species-level all *Achromobacter* spp. isolates referred to the Scottish
CF antimicrobial susceptibility centre using *nrdA* sequencing.

ii) To describe species-level antimicrobial susceptibility profiles of *Achromobacter*spp.

iii) To determine most promising antimicrobial combination treatment for multidrugresistant *Achromobacter* spp.

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85 **2.0 Results**

86 **2.1 Study population and geographic metadata**

A total of 112 presumptive multidrug-resistant *Achromobacter* spp. were referred for extended antimicrobial susceptibility testing. Isolates were collected over an 18 year period (24 Sep 2001 to 09 Oct 2019) from 9 hospitals: 8 in Scotland and one in Belfast (North Ireland). Edinburgh had the highest patient population (43.59%) and submitted 60/112 samples. Glasgow and Aberdeen with patient proportions of 17.95% and 12.82% submitted 10 and 17/112 samples respectively. Patient age ranged from 11 to 78 years with a median age at first referral of 28 years. Study population comprised of 17 (43.59%) and 22 (56.41%) male and female patients respectively. Of this population, 18 individuals had single isolate referrals whilst the remaining 21 individuals had multiple referrals (2-9 isolates per individual) with colonization periods of 1-10 years (Table 1).

98 2.2 Species prevalence

*nrd*A sequencing differentiated the 112 referred isolates into 6 different species. We 99 observed that A. xylosoxidans (n=88/112, 78.57%) was the most prevalent species 100 101 amongst our patients (n=28/39, 71.79%) while A. insuavis was the second most prevalent Achromobacter spp. (10%). To illustrate the degree of sustained 102 colonisation at patient level we constructed a neighbour joining tree (Fig 1) which 103 demonstrates that repeat isolates from patients (>2 submissions) 104 were representatives of the patients' first referred isolates for 19 out of the 21 patients 105 (90.48%). 106

107 2.3 Antimicrobial susceptibility testing

Using 18 antimicrobials susceptibility testing were performed on the 112 108 Achromobacter isolates. Though unequal sampling was carried out in our study, Fig. 109 110 2 shows that most of the Achromobacter isolates were resistant (\geq 93.33%) to the as 111 aminoglycosides; amikacin, gentamicin, and tobramycin well as the fluoroquinolones; ciprofloxacin and levofloxacin (83.04 - 91.96%). The most active 112

antimicrobials were piperacillin-tazobactam (70.27%), followed by co-trimoxazole 113 (69.72%) and minocycline (62.39%). Aztreonam had no activity against 114 Achromobacter spp. (For detailed information, see supplementary data). Thereafter, 115 we grouped the first-referred study isolates and determined if differences existed in 116 the antimicrobial susceptibility patterns (Fig 2). Statistical analysis showed that 117 susceptibility differences exist for amikacin (p=0.032), gentamicin (p=0.002), 118 tobramycin (p=0.007), ciprofloxacin (p=0.001), levofloxacin (p<0.001) doxycycline 119 (p < 0.001), minocycline (p = 0.005) and ticarcillin/clavulanate (p = 0.043). There was no 120 121 statistical difference in the susceptibility of both Achromobacter groups to aztreonam, chloramphenicol, colistin, co-trimoxazole, ceftazidime or piperacillin-tazobactam. 122

123 2.4 Antimicrobial synergy testing

Antimicrobial synergy testing was conducted using the direct overlay Etest method and findings classified using the FICI and SBPI criteria. In summary, a total of 738 antimicrobial combinations were tested with a mean of 6.6 combinations per isolate.

127 **2.4.1 FICI**

Using FICI criteria, the rates of synergy and antagonism between pairs of antimicrobials were 10.57% and 2.30% respectively. Species grouping showed 2fold higher rate of synergy (11.75%) in *A. xylosoxidans* (n=604) when compared with non-*xylosoxidans* (n=138) cumulatively (5.22 % synergy).

The rates of antimicrobial antagonism in *A. xylosoxidans* were 2.32% while in non*xylosoxidans* 2.24% was observed. A summary of the most synergistic combinations for *Achromobacter* spp. were ceftazidime + imipenem (n=14, 50% synergy),

tobramycin + ceftazidime (n=23, 34.78% synergy) and tobramycin + imipenem 135 (n=32, 21.88% synergy). The highest rate of antagonism was observed with 136 ceftazidime + co-trimoxazole (n=24, 12.50 % antagonism) and minocycline + 137 ticarcillin-clavulanate (n= 18, 11.11% antagonism). However when grouped as 138 species; for A. xylosoxidans ceftazidime + imipenem combinations (n=13, 53.85%) 139 140 as well as tobramycin with ceftazidime (n=18, 38.89%)/imipenem (n=26, 23.08%) were the most synergistic combinations. While for non-xylosoxidans the antimicrobial 141 combination of tobramycin and ceftazidime (n=5/ 20%) was the most synergistic 142 143 combination. Interestingly, for A. xylosoxidans (Table 2), cotrimoxazole combinations followed by tobramycin was the most prevalent synergistic combinations. While in 144 non-xylosoxidans (Table 3) tobramycin combinations were the most prevalent 145 synergistic combinations. This suggests that to achieve synergy, antimicrobial 146 combinations with cotrimoxazole and tobramycin should be explored. 147

148 **2.4.2 SBPI**

But in the laboratory, there is uncertainty about which combinations might be synergistic *in vitro*, therefore our laboratory previously proposed use of the SBPI method. For the 738 antimicrobial combinations tested in all study *Achromobacter* spp., the median SBPI was 4.67 while the mean SBPI was 15.20. By species the median and mean values of 4.00 and 15.79 were observed for *A. xylosoxidans* while higher values (10.00 and 23.34) were observed for non-*xylosoxidans*.

The highest median SBPI for *Achromobacter* spp. was combinations of levofloxacin with piperacillin-tazobactam (12.00) or co-trimoxazole (9.63). Tobramycin when combined with either ceftazidime or imipenem gave the lowest median values. Table 158 2 demonstrates that highest median SBPI for *A. xylosoxidans* was combinations of 159 cotrimoxazole with Ticarcillin-clavulanate (11.33) and imipenem (10.00). Similarly, for 160 non- xylosoxidans (Table 3) a high SBPI value was obtained for co-trimoxazole 161 combinations with levofloxacin (31.28) or ceftazidime (SBPI 22.44).

162 **3.0 Discussion**

Our study focused on Achromobacter spp. which has been reported as one of the 163 emerging pathogens found in cystic fibrosis patients (4, 17, 18). As the Scottish CF 164 antimicrobial reference laboratory we receive only multi and extensively drug 165 resistant isolates from Scottish hospitals as well as Belfast for antimicrobial synergy 166 testing. It is therefore difficult to show that our study is a representative picture of the 167 Scottish CF population. However, like other studies (3-5, 19) our study reiterates the 168 dominance of A. xylosoxidans (28 out of 39 patients) amongst the CF population. 169 Also, with an A. xylosoxidans prevalence of 78.57% our study agrees with the 170 171 estimated UK prevalence of 78.4% (3). Amoureux et al. (1) suggested that its dominant role might be due to either a higher natural abundance or the presence of 172 favourable selective factors for example the possession of innate resistance to 173 disinfectants such as quaternary ammonium compounds which ensures its ability to 174 thrive in clinical samples. Also, A. insuavis was the second most patient carried 175 Achromobacter spp. but the persistent colonization of A. ruhlandii in our CF 176 population meant that the latter was the second most isolated species. Previous 177 studies have demonstrated that persistent CF infections are mainly attributed to A. 178 xylosoxidans, A. insuavis and A. dolens (5). This was also observed in our study, 179 however longitudinal analysis of our data agrees with Gade et al. (6) that A. ruhlandii 180

is also capable of persisting in the CF airways. The mechanisms of persistence has 181 not been fully established with several hypotheses postulated. Gade et al. (6) reports 182 that inter-patient transmission might be possible while Edwards et al. (5) showed that 183 Achromobacter spp. is patient specific and there was clearance in all but one patient 184 when treated with oral cotrimoxazole. Also, Dupont et al. (4) reported that the 185 186 environmental habitat might not play a role in the reseeding of isolates for patients with persistent infections. We hypothesize that these isolates may not be entirely 187 eradicated from the CF airways during treatment and on the development of 188 189 favourable conditions multiply and cause pulmonary exacerbations. This is because analysis of the antimicrobial susceptibility patterns of isolates from patients with 190 repeated submissions show similar antimicrobial patterns while results from our nrdA 191 192 sequencing demonstrate persistent infection. We also did not observe any evidence of potential transmission between individuals or shared geographical location. 193 194 However, further epidemiological studies on these isolates is necessary to enrich our knowledge on the mechanisms of persistence. 195

Coward et al. (3) reported that there are no established guidelines for managing CF 196 197 patients who persistently harbour Achromobacter spp. with antimicrobial susceptibility pattern/testing less defined. Indeed, there is a dearth in the knowledge 198 of species-level antimicrobial susceptibility patterns as well as the most promising 199 synergistic combinations. Similar to other studies (3, 19-21) the most active 200 antimicrobial was piperacillin-tazobactam, and cotrimoxazole at 70% while 201 minocycline was third at 62%. As expected, we observed a high resistance of our 202 isolates to the aminoglycosides. This resistance reported by Bador et al. (22) is due 203

204 to the possession of AxyXY-OprZ efflux system which confer resistance to aminoglycoside in Achromobacter spp. especially A. xylosoxidans, A. ruhlandii and 205 A. insuavis which make up 96% of this study. Similarly as observed by Amoureux et 206 al. (19), Achromobacter spp. was more susceptible to imipenem (47%) compared to 207 meropenem (37%) although our values (given that our samples were MDR and XDR 208 209 strains) had a lower susceptibility percentage. Also, mirrored in our observation as described in most CF and environmental isolates were high ciprofloxacin (92%) and 210 aztreonam (100%) resistance while for the newer β -lactam combinations such as 211 212 ceftolozane-tazobactam (100%) and ceftazidime-avibactam (78%) our isolates were resistant to these drugs. This observation was also made by Coward et al. (3). But, 213 few CF studies have described species antimicrobial susceptibility patterns of 214 215 Achromobacter spp. We demonstrate that in Achromobacter spp. differences exist in the susceptibility of non-xylosoxidans compared with A. xylosoxidans to the 216 carbapenems, cephalosporins or tetracyclines. The presence of resistance-217 nodulation-cell-division-type pumps in A. xylosoxidans such as AxyABM, AxyXY-218 OprZ and TetA confers the cell with the ability to pump cephalosporins, 219 fluoroquinolones, aztreonam, chloramphenicol, carbapenems and tetracycline out of 220 the cell (23, 24). Papalia et al. (25) reported that a homologue of AxyABM was 221 present in A. ruhlandii, therefore conferring it with the ability to expel 222 223 chloramphenicol. Further research is needed to determine the presence of efflux pumps and characterize if present in non-xylosoxidans. 224

Irrespective of isolate susceptibility, antibiotic exposure gives rise to the emergence of multi drug and extensively drug resistant strains causing limited therapeutic

options in patient management. Therefore to reduce toxicity and improve efficacy 227 while preventing the emergence of drug resistance, multiple antibiotics thought to be 228 effective as single agents are typically often prescribed in the clinic (26). But there is 229 limited information on synergistic combination for the treatment of Achromobacter 230 spp. infections. To the best of our knowledge this is the first time antimicrobial 231 232 synergy results are described for Achromobacter spp. to species level. Analysis of our data showed that there were differences in the synergy observed in both 233 Achromobacter groups when there was availability of the interpretative guidelines. 234 235 For all and first-referred isolates, there was ~50% increase in synergy for A. xylosoxidans compared to non-xylosoxidans when two CLSI interpretative guidelines 236 were known. Though not a remit of this study, more research would enhance 237 238 knowledge on how the more resistant A. xylosoxidans is able to demonstrate more synergistic combinations than non-xylosoxidans. 239

At a genus level, our results demonstrate that for *Achromobacter* spp. combinations 240 of ceftazidime + imipenem (50%) was the most synergistic combinations. This is in 241 contrast with observations made by Saiman et al. (27) which stated that ciprofloxacin 242 243 + meropenem combinations (9%) were the most synergistic combinations. It is worth noting that not all the combinations were tested at the same frequency and 244 differences existed in the rates observed for both studies. But, Gómara et al. (26) 245 reported that due to lack of standardization, differences exist in synergy reported 246 using different methods. Indeed, Saiman used the checkerboard while our lab used 247 248 the direct overlay E-test method. It might also be due to our cut off which analysed only combinations which had been tested more than 5 times. The unpredictability of 249

250 synergy and the non-correlation of synergy and clinical efficacy was the reason our lab had earlier proposed the use of SBPI (28) as a useful parameter for comparing in 251 vitro effectiveness of combinations thereby ranking them. Our results suggest that 252 combinations of cotrimoxazole with several antimicrobials are able to give a high 253 SBPI values although these values do not predict a synergistic FICI. A major 254 255 limitation of our data is the lack of information on the clinical outcomes of our combinations. Therefore, further investigation is required to assess if there is a 256 correlation of SPBI values and clinical efficacy. In clinical practice however, there is 257 258 a growing evidence showing the lack of effectiveness seen when guiding antimicrobial selection based on in vitro synergy testing. Indeed, results from a 259 randomized, double-blind controlled trial demonstrated that there was no difference 260 261 between groups and proposed synergy testing in CF patients should be stopped (29). However, this study was carried out using multiple-combination bactericidal test 262 263 method and with various degrees of agreement in synergy methods, it is possible that others might be more clinically relevant. Finally, the selected study of multidrug-264 resistant strains may have overestimated our observation of persistence. It would be 265 interesting to how the use of random selection would impact on our results. 266

In summary, the *Achromobacter* spp. remains a key emerging pathogen in CF individuals and has been implicated in pulmonary exacerbations. This research reiterates the prevalent MDR species that make up the *Achromobacter* genus and highlights their susceptibility profiles to several antimicrobials. It also attempts to give antimicrobial combinations which might be used in the treatment of chronic *Achromobacter* infections. With inconsistency reported in clinical outcomes of these patients, accurate identification of *Achromobacter* spp. will undeniably play a vital
role in approach taken during therapeutic management of CF patients.

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276 4.0 Materials and method

277 4.1 Study Isolates

A total of 112 presumptive *Achromobacter* spp. identified by 8 Scottish and 1
Northern Ireland laboratories were collected over an 18 year period (24th September
2001 – 9th October 2019) when they were sent for extended susceptibility testing.
Isolates were stored in the bacterial preservation system MICROBANKTM (PRO-LAB
DIAGNOSTICS Ontario, Canada) at -80°C.

Isolates were plated on receipt onto Mueller-Hinton agar (MH), MacConkey agar, 283 Pseudomonas Cetrimide agar and Burkholderia cepacia selective agar plates (All 284 agar plates manufactured by Oxoid Ltd., Basingstoke, UK). Following 18-24 hr 285 incubation at 35 °C in ambient air, plates were examined for purity and thereafter 286 incubated a further 24 hr to confirm for purity. Oxidase testing (Oxoid Ltd., 287 Basingstoke, UK) was performed as a confirmatory test on 18-24 hr colonies. 288 289 Oxidase positive and non-lactose fermenting isolates were accepted as Achromobacter spp 290

291 4.2 nrdA Sequencing

Species identification of isolates was carried out by *nrdA* sequencing according the method described by Spilker et al. (15). Briefly, a single colony of *Achromobacter* spp. was suspended in 20 μ l of lysis buffer composed of 0.25 % (v/v) sodium

dodecyl sulfate (Sigma-Aldrich, Irvine, UK) and 0.05 N NaOH (Sigma-Aldrich, Irvine, 295 UK). On heating for 15 mins at 95 °C, 180 µl of high-pressure-liquid-chromatography 296 grade water (Sigma-Aldrich, Irvine, UK) was added to the suspension. The solution 297 was centrifuged at 13,300 rpm for 5 mins and the supernatants stored at -20 °C. Full 298 length *nrdA* amplification and sequencing was carried out using the *nrdA*-specific 299 300 forward (GAACTGGATTCCCGACCTGTTC) and reverse (TTCGATTTGACGTACAAGTTCTGG) primers as previously published (15). 301 Amplified PCR products were sequenced by Eurofins genomics (GATC Biotech AG. 302 303 Konstanz, Germany) and sequence chromatograms were visualized and edited using the SegMan Pro (DNAStar, Madison, WI, USA). Allele numbers were assigned 304 isolate 305 to each using the Achromobacter MLST database 306 (http://pubmlst.org/org/achromobacter/). Trimmed sequences were aligned using MegAlign Pro (DNAStar, Madison, WI, USA). Clustal W in MegAlign Pro was used to 307 generate a neighbour joining tree with 1,000 bootstrap replications using default 308 Study isolates were grouped as either A. xylosoxidans or non-309 parameters. xylosoxidans following nrdA identification. 310

4.3 Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) testing

MIC testing was performed on MH Agar using the Etest methodology according to 312 manufacturer's instructions (Liofilchem, Abruzzi, Italy and BioMerieux, Basingstoke, 313 UK). The antimicrobials tested were amikacin, gentamicin, tobramycin, ciprofloxacin, 314 levofloxacin, aztreonam, ceftazidime, piperacillin/tazobactam, imipenem, 315 316 meropenem, colistin, chloramphenicol, minocycline and co-trimoxazole. Data relating to susceptibility to ticarcillin/clavulanate which the service had stopped testing were 317

included in the analyses up to its stop date (2018). While susceptibility data of
antimicrobials introduced by the service later than 2001, namely doxycycline
(October 2003), Ceftazidime-avibactam (January 2018) and ceftolozane-tazobactam
(January 2018) were included in the analyses from the time of introduction.

In this study, MIC values between the standard doubling dilution scale were rounded 322 323 up to the next doubling dilution (e.g. 0.75 = 1.0 mg/L). The MICs for amikacin, gentamicin, tobramycin, ciprofloxacin, levofloxacin, aztreonam, ceftazidime. 324 piperacillin/tazobactam, imipenem, meropenem, ticarcillin/clavulanate, doxycycline, 325 chloramphenicol, minocycline and co-trimoxazole were interpreted as susceptible 326 (S), intermediate (I) or resistant (R) according to the Clinical and Laboratories 327 328 Standards Institute (CLSI) approved interpretive standards for nonenterobacteriaceae (30). Ceftazidime/avibactam, ceftolozane/tazobactam and 329 colistin were interpreted as per CLSI standards for *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (30). In 330 this study, multidrug-resistance (MDR) was defined as acquired non-susceptibility to 331 at least one agent in \geq 3 antimicrobial groups (31). 332

333 **4.4 Combination testing**

Combination testing was performed using a minimum of six pairs of antimicrobials (A + B), as described previously (28). Briefly, MH agar plates were inoculated with two Etest strips (A and B) placed top to tail according to the manufacturer's instructions. After 1 hr to allow antimicrobial migration into the agar, each strip is removed and fresh Etest is placed in opposite orientation on the imprint (Etest A strip replaced with fresh Etest B strip and vice versa). Plates were further incubated for 22-24 hrs in ambient air at 35 °C.

341 **4.4.1** Fractional inhibitory concentration index (FICI)

Indices derived from the combination MIC results were calculated using the MIC
value read off the Etest strip and interpreted as described below.

Where an MIC was found to be greater than the antimicrobial range tested, the next doubling dilution above the highest value of the range tested was used to calculate the FICI (e.g. if an MIC of >256mg/L was found then the FICI was calculated using 512mg/L) (32). The indices were interpreted as: synergy - FICI ≤0.5, no interaction -FICI >0.5 and ≤4.0 and antagonism - FICI >4.0 (33).

Analyses of species susceptibility to double combinations of antimicrobials tested ≥5
 times was carried out when CLSI breakpoints for non-enterobacteriaceae was
 known.

353 **4.4.2 Susceptible breakpoint index (SBPI)**

SBPI = (Susceptible breakpoint of antimicrobial A / MIC of antimicrobial A $_{combination}$) + (Susceptible breakpoint of antimicrobial B / MIC of antimicrobial B $_{combination}$) (28). The combination results were graded and reported in rank order of their SBPI results from highest to lowest SBPI which displays the effectiveness of the combination in decreasing order. Any combination found to be antagonistic (FICI >4.0), was not ranked and was not recommended for therapy irrespective of the SBPI result.

360 **4.5 Statistical methods**

361 Descriptive statistics were derived using Microsoft Office Excel 2013 and IBM SPSS 362 statistics for windows, Version 24 (IBM Corp., Armonk, N.Y., USA). A two-tailed 363 Mann Whitney test was performed using GraphPad Prism, Version 8.4.0 (GraphPad 364 software, San Diego, California, USA).

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366 **5.0 Acknowledgements**

The authors would like to thank the laboratories and clinicians who use the Cystic 367 368 Fibrosis Antibiotics Susceptibility testing service (CFASS) for their support in sending samples. CFASS is an adult patient testing facility funded by the National Services 369 Division of the Common Services Agency of the Scottish Executive. Achromobacter 370 spp. identification was supported by grants from the University of Aberdeen and the 371 NHS Grampian Clinical Microbiology Fund (NHS Grampian Endowment Funds 372 Registered Charity Number SC017296). IMG serves as a consultant to and/ speaker 373 to Pfizer and MSD. All other authors declare no competing interests. 374

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519 Figure Legends

520 **Table 1. Characteristics of study population and demographics**

521 P00, anonymized participant number; F, female; M, male; -, data unavailable

522

523 **Fig 1. Neighbour joining tree illustrating the** *nrd***A clustering of** *Achromobacter* 524 **spp. isolates from patients with repeated submission**.

525 P, patient; 01-38 anonymized number, a-i; repeated samples submitted by patient.

526

Fig 2. *Achromobacter* **spp. susceptibility patterns.** Percentage susceptibility of all-referred *Achromobacter* **spp.**, first-referred isolates (*A. xylosoxidans* and non*xylosoxidans*) to several antimicrobials. AMK, amikacin; GEN, gentamicin; TOB, tobramycin; CIP, ciprofloxacin; LVX, levofloxacin; ATM, aztreonam; CAZ, ceftazidime; TZP, piperacillin-tazobactam; IPM, imipenem; MEM, meropenem; COL, colistin; TIM, ticarcillin-clavulanate; CHL, chloramphenicol; DOX, doxycycline; MIN, minocycline; SXT, co-trimoxazole

534 ^a CLSI-approved interpretative standards for non-enterobacteriaceae

^b CLSI-approved interpretative standards for *P. aeruginosa.* Colistin resistance may be over-estimated due to limitations of the diffusion method.

537

538

539 **Table 2. Summary of antimicrobial combinations tested on** *A. xylosoxidans*

- 540 isolates
- 541 TOB, tobramycin; LVX, levofloxacin; CAZ, ceftazidime; IPM, imipenem; MEM,
- meropenem; TIM, ticarcillin-clavulanate; CHL, chloramphenicol; MIN, minocycline;
 SXT, co-trimoxazole
- ^aPercentage active when used as a single agent
- ^bNumber of times the combinations were tested
- 546
- 547
- 548

Table 3. Summary of antimicrobial combinations tested on *Non-xylosoxidans* isolates

- 551
- 552
- 553 TOB, tobramycin; CAZ, ceftazidime; IPM, imipenem; MEM, meropenem; MIN,
- minocycline, SXT, co-trimoxazole; CHL, chloramphenicol
- ^a Percentage active when used as a single agent
- ^bNumber of times the combinations were tested

| Participant | Sex | Location | Age at first | No of samples | Period of |
|-------------|-----|------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|
| number | | | submission | submitted | colonization |
| | | | (yrs) | | (yrs) |
| P01 | F | Inverclyde | 12 | 5 | 4 |
| P02 | F | Glasgow | 16 | 1 | - |
| P03 | F | Edinburgh | 13 | 6 | 9 |
| P04 | F | Edinburgh | 20 | 3 | 1 |
| P05 | Μ | Kilmarnock | 11 | 4 | 3 |
| P06 | М | Edinburgh | 22 | 1 | |
| P07 | F | Edinburgh | 18 | 8 | 10 |
| P08 | F | Dumfries | 25 | 5 | 5 |
| P09 | М | Dundee | 24 | 5 | 8 |
| P10 | М | Aberdeen | 20 | 7 | 10 |
| P11 | F | Aberdeen | 16 | 1 | |
| P12 | М | Edinburgh | 24 | 7 | 8 |
| P13 | F | Edinburgh | 18 | 6 | 6 |
| P14 | F | Edinburgh | 54 | 1 | |
| P15 | F | Edinburgh | 25 | 1 | |
| P16 | F | Edinburgh | 19 | 9 | 6 |
| P17 | Μ | Edinburgh | 23 | 4 | 4 |
| P18 | Μ | Glasgow | 13 | 4 | 4 |
| P19 | М | Edinburgh | 28 | 1 | |
| P20 | F | Dundee | 33 | 1 | - |
| P21 | М | Edinburgh | 30 | 3 | 3 |
| P22 | М | Edinburgh | 18 | 2 | 2 |
| P23 | F | Aberdeen | 21 | 4 | 1 |
| P24 | М | Glasgow | 20 | 1 | |
| P25 | М | Aberdeen | 48 | 3 | 4 |
| P26 | F | Glasgow | 20 | 1 | |
| P27 | F | Aberdeen | 30 | 2 | 3 |
| P28 | F | Glasgow | 71 | 1 | |
| P29 | М | Edinburgh | 32 | 1 | |
| P30 | F | Belfast | 69 | 1 | |
| P31 | F | Belfast | 44 | 1 | - |
| P32 | F | Belfast | - | 1 | |
| P33 | F | Belfast | - | 1 | |
| P34 | М | Glasgow | 21 | 1 | |
| P35 | F | Glasgow | 24 | 1 | - |
| P36 | F | Edinburgh | 23 | 3 | 2 |
| P37 | М | Edinburgh | 78 | 2 | 2 |
| P38 | М | Edinburgh | 16 | 2 | 2 |
| P39 | М | Belfast | - | 1 | |

Table 1. Characteristics of study population and demographics





Fig 2. Achromobacter spp. susceptibility patterns.

| Antimicrobial | | | Synergy | | Antagor | istic | SBPI | |
|--------------------------|------------------------------|---------------------|---------|------|---------|-------|--------|------|
| First (%S ^a) | Second(%S ^a) | Number ^b | % | Rank | % | Rank | Median | Rank |
| CAZ (23) | IPM (46.6) | 13 | 53.85 | 1 | | | 5.17 | 5 |
| TOB (0) | CAZ (23) | 18 | 38.89 | 2 | | | 3.17 | 13 |
| TOB (0) | IPM (46.6) | 26 | 23.08 | 3 | | | 3.33 | 10 |
| IPM (46.6) | SXT (64.7) | 10 | 20.00 | 4 | | | 10.00 | 2 |
| CAZ (23) | SXT (64.7) | 15 | 20.00 | 4 | 13.33 | 1 | 8.50 | 4 |
| MIN (54.1) | SXT (64.7) | 15 | 13.33 | 6 | 6.67 | 5 | 4.67 | 6 |
| TOB (0) | MEM (36.8) | 15 | 13.33 | 6 | | | 2.79 | 16 |
| TOB (0) | TIM (49.3) | 15 | 13.33 | 6 | | | 2.75 | 18 |
| SXT (64.7) | CHL (2.4) | 16 | 12.50 | 9 | | | 9.13 | 3 |
| TOB (0) | SXT (64.7) | 10 | 10.00 | 10 | 10.00 | 3 | 4.23 | 8 |
| SXT (64.7) | TIM (49.3) | 10 | 10.00 | 10 | | | 11.33 | 1 |
| LVX (1.1) | MIN (54.1) | 16 | | | | | 3.33 | 10 |
| LVX (1.1) | TIM (49.3) | 10 | | | | | 4.46 | 7 |
| MIN (54.1) | CHL (2.4) | 24 | | | | | 3.08 | 14 |
| MIN (54.1) | CAZ (23) | 19 | | | | | 3.33 | 10 |
| MIN (54.1) | TIM (49.3) | 18 | | | 11.11 | 2 | 3.08 | 14 |
| MIN (54.1) | IPM (46.6) | 11 | | | | | 3.67 | 9 |
| TOB (0) | MIN (54.1) | 13 | | | 7.69 | 4 | 2.79 | 16 |

Table 2. Summary of antimicrobial combinations tested on A. xylosoxidans isolates

| Antimicrobial | Synergy | | Antagonistic | | SBPI | | | |
|---------------|--------------|---------------------|--------------|------|-------|------|--------|------|
| First (%Sª) | Second (%Sª) | Number ^b | % | Rank | % | Rank | Median | Rank |
| CAZ (37.5) | TOB (4.2) | 5 | 20.00 | 1 | | | 3.42 | 8 |
| LVX (20.8) | MIN (91.7) | 6 | 16.67 | 2 | | | 6.67 | 3 |
| TOB (4.2) | IPM (50) | 6 | 16.67 | 3 | | | 4.33 | 6 |
| CAZ (37.5) | SXT (87.5) | 9 | | 4 | 11.11 | 1 | 22.44 | 2 |
| LVX (20.8) | SXT (87.5) | 6 | | 5 | | | 31.28 | 1 |
| MIN (91.7) | CHL (4.2) | 5 | | 7 | | | 6.67 | 3 |
| TOB (4.2) | MEM (37.5) | 5 | | | | | 4.33 | 6 |
| CAZ (37.5) | MIN (91.7) | 5 | | | | | 6.46 | 5 |

Table 3. Summary of antimicrobial combinations tested on Non-xylosoxidans isolates