

Identification of free-living amoebas and amoeba-resistant bacteria accumulated in Dreissena polymorpha

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Complete List of Authors:	Goñi, Pilar; University of Zaragoza Faculty of Medicine, Microbiology, Preventive Medicine and Public Health; University of Zaragoza, Water and Environmental Health Research Group, Environmental Sciences Institute (IUCA), Benito, Maria; University of Zaragoza Faculty of Medicine, Department of Microbiology, Preventive Medicine and Public Health,; University of Zaragoza Higher Polytechnic Centre, Department of Chemical Engineering and Environmental Technologies, EINA, LaPlante, Daniella; University of Zaragoza Faculty of Medicine, Department of Microbiology, Preventive Medicine and Public Health, Fernandez, Maria; University of Zaragoza, Department of Physiatry and Nursery, Faculty of Health Sciences; University of Zaragoza, Water and Environmental Health Research Group, Environmental Sciences Institute (IUCA), Sanchez, Elena; Hospital Clínico Universitario Lozano Blesa, Service of Microbiology and Parasitology Chueca, Patricia; University of Zaragoza Faculty of Medicine Miguel, Natividad; University of Zaragoza Higher Polytechnic Centre, Department of Chemical Engineering and Environmental Technologies, EINA,; University of Zaragoza, Water and Environmental Health Research Group, Environmental Sciences Institute (IUCA) Mosteo, Rosa; University of Zaragoza, Chemical Engineering and Environmental Technologies; University of Zaragoza, Water and Environmental Health Research Group, Environmental Health Research Group, Environmental Sciences Institute (IUCA), Rubio, Encarnacion; University of Zaragoza Faculty of Medicine, Microbiology, Preventive Medicine and Public Health; University of Zaragoza, Water and Environmental Health Research Group, Environmental Sciences Institute (IUCA),		
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1 2 Identification of free-living amoebas and amoeba-resistant bacteria accumulated in Dreissena 3 polymorpha. Pilar Goñi^{1,2*}, María Benito^{1,3}, Daniella LaPlante¹, María T. Fernández^{2,4}, Elena Sánchez⁵, Patricia 4 5 Chueca¹, Natividad Miguel^{2,3}, Rosa Mosteo^{2,3}, María P. Ormad^{2,3}, Encarnación Rubio^{1,2}. 6 ¹Department of Microbiology, Preventive Medicine and Public Health, Faculty of Medicine, University of 7 Zaragoza, C/Domingo Miral s/n, 50009 Zaragoza, Spain 8 ²Water and Environmental Health Research Group, Environmental Sciences Institute (IUCA), University of 9 Zaragoza, Zaragoza, Spain. 10 ³Department of Chemical Engineering and Environmental Technologies, EINA, University of Zaragoza, C/María 11 de Luna 3, 50018 Zaragoza, Spain 12 ⁴Department of Physiatry and Nursery, Faculty of Health Sciences University of Zaragoza, C/Domingo 13 Miral s/n. 50009 Zaragoza, Spain. 14 ⁵Service of Microbiology and Parasitology, Hospital Clínico Universitario Lozano Blesa, C/San Juan 15 Bosco, 15. 50009 Zaragoza, Spain. 16 17 18 19 20 *Corresponding author: Pilar Goñi. Area of Parasitology, Department of Microbiology, Preventive 21 Medicine and Public Health, Faculty of Medicine, University of Zaragoza, C/Domingo Miral s/n, 50009 Zaragoza, Spain. E-mail:pgoni@unizar.es. Telephone number: +34976761692 22 23 Running Title: Free-living amoebas and bacteria in zebra mussels 24

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Abstract

To identify the free-living amoeba (FLA) and amoeba resistant bacteria (ARB) accumulated in zebra mussels and in the water in which they are found, mussels were collected at two locations in the Ebro river basin (North East Spain). Free-living amoebas and bacteria were isolated from mussel extracts and from natural water. PCR techniques were used to identify the FLAs and endosymbiont bacteria (*Legionella*, *Mycobacterium*, *Pseudomonas* and cyanobacteria), and to detect *Giardia* and *Cryptosporidium*. The most frequently found FLAs were *Naegleria* spp. The presence of *Legionella*, *Mycobacterium*, and *Pseudomonas* inside the FLA was demonstrated, and in some cases both *Legionella* and *Pseudomonas* were found together. Differences between FLAs and ARB identified inside the mussels and in the water were detected. In addition, *Escherichia coli*, *Clostridium perfringens*, *Salmonella* spp. and *Enterococcus* spp. were accumulated in mussels in concentrations unconnected with those found in water. The results show the ability of the zebra mussel to act as a reservoir of potentially pathogenic FLAs, which are associated with potentially pathogenic amoebaresistant bacteria, although the lack of association between microorganisms inside the mussels and in the water suggests that they are not useful for monitoring microbiological contamination at a specific time.

- **Keywords:** *Dreissena polymorpha*; accumulation; bacteria; free-living amoeba; amoeba-resistant bacteria.

1. Introduction

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Dreissena polymorpha, commonly known as the zebra mussel, is considered one of the 100 most harmful invasive exotic species in the Northern Hemisphere (Karatayev et al., 2015). In North East Spain, D. polymorpha bivalves have invaded the Ebro River basin since 2001, including tributaries and areas at the headwaters of the river. Due to their condition of filter feeders, Zebra mussels accumulate and concentrate organic compounds, metals, and microorganisms from the water into their tissues, even when they are present in low concentrations (Mosteo et al., 2016). In consequence, they have been considered a possible tool for monitoring the pollution of the ecosystems in which they live (Carrasco et al., 2008; Parolini and Binelli, 2014; Poma et al., 2014; Mosteo et al., 2016; Benito et al., 2017). The microorganisms accumulated inside the mussels include bacteria, viruses and some pathogenic protozoa (Selegean et al., 2001; Graczyk et al., 2004; Palos Ladeiro et al., 2014; Kerambrun et al., 2016; Mezzanotte et al., 2016; Mosteo et al., 2016; Bighiu et al., 2019). Free-living amoebas (FLAs) have been found on the shell of the mussel (Bischoff and Wetmore, 2009), and also in extracts of freshwater bivalves from the Ebro River basin using microscopy techniques, but the genus of the FLA was not identified (Mosteo et al., 2016). FLAs are environmental protozoa, some of which can be potentially pathogenic for humans and animals. Acanthamoeba spp. is the most frequently isolated FLA in the environment (Garcia et al., 2013), followed by Vermamoeba spp. (Greub and Raoult, 2004). Both of them can cause encephalitis, but are more frequently found as a cause of keratitis associated with the use of contact lenses. Naegleria fowleri, the only pathogenic Naegleria species which is associated with primary amoebic meningoencephalitis, has not been detected to date in the Ebro River reservoirs (Garcia et al., 2013). The microbial community inside mussels and other bivalves is closely related to the microbiological composition of the environment in which they are attached (Mariné Oliveira et al., 2016). FLAs are usually integrated into biofilms, which correspond to complex structures where microorganisms are associated (Castrillon Rivera et al., 2012). The

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amoebas released from the biofilms are free in the water and are then accumulated in the mussel, but curiously Bischoff and Horvath (2011) found higher densities of amoebas in water and sediments

from American lakes with zebra mussel than in those without mussels.

FLAs carry bacteria inside them which are able to survive lysis by amoebas. Some of them such as Legionella, even multiply (Goñi et al., 2014). Other intracellular bacteria have limited capacities to grow within FLAs, such as Chamydia and Chlamydia- related bacteria (Kebbi-Beghdadi and Greub, 2014). These bacteria, known as amoeba-resistant bacteria (ARB), are transported from one place to another and protected from external conditions that include extreme temperatures, chemical agents, and disinfectants to which amoebas are resistant (Greub and Raoult, 2004; Goñi et al., 2014; Pagnier et al., 2015). Among the best-known ARBs are species such as Legionella pneumophila, Pseudomonas spp., toxic cyanobacteria, Mycobacterium spp., Chlamydia and Chlamydia- related bacteria (Calvo et al., 2013; Kebbi-Beghdadi and Greub, 2014). Lately, the presence within FLAs of other bacteria of public health interest, such as Helicobacter pylori, Aeromonas sp., Arcobacter sp. and Salmonella has been reported (Moreno-Mesonero et al., 2020). Thus, D. polymorpha can accumulate a wide variety of organisms including FLA which, in turn, accumulate bacteria. The possible role of the microorganisms accumulated in the zebra mussel and in the FLA remains unidentified, so symbiotic association cannot be ruled out. The aim of this work was to identify the potentially pathogenic free-living amoebas (FLAs) and their ARB accumulated in zebra mussels from the Ebro river basin, comparing them with those present in the water in which they are found.

2. Results and Discussion

2.1. FLA isolation and identification in natural water and zebra mussel

Natural water and zebra mussels were taken from two sampling points along the Ebro river basin, located in the North East (NE) of Spain: the Sobrón reservoir in Santa María de Garoña (Burgos, Spain) and the Rimer irrigation channel downstream from Caspe (Zaragoza, Spain) (Figure 1). Both places are described in section 3.1. During the maintenance of the zebra mussels from the Sobrón

95 Reservoir in a laboratory scale aquarium, the death of a large number of specimens was observed. 96 They were analysed as a different sample and treated as described in section 3.1. 97 FLAs were isolated in the 100 % of the mussel and water samples. Their identification is shown in 98 table 1. Together with two other amoebas, a flagellate was observed and captured when the extract 99 obtained from the dead mussels from Sobrón was visualized by microscopy (Fig. 2). This was 100 identified by PCR techniques as Cercomonadida, a biflagellate bacterivorous protozoon abundant in 101 soil and freshwater. Its morphological differentiation from Naegleria clarki grown in NN Agar is 102 shown in Figure 2. 103 As Bischoff and Hovarth (2011) demonstrated, it is reasonable to predict that zebra mussels have an 104 impact on the heterotrophic communities of the aquatic ecosystems they invade. This is why, it is 105 important to know if zebra mussels accumulate FLAs and to identify them. The variety of amoeba 106 species isolated in the two sampling sites could be due to the greater agricultural and livestock 107 activity associated with a greater richness of FLA species and higher concentrations of bacteria 108 (Rodríguez-Zaragoza et al., 1994; Bonilla-Lemus et al., 2014). 109 Overall, stands out the high presence of the genus Naegleria spp., and the low isolation of 110 Acanthamoeba spp. (Table 1). Also, different genera of FLA were found in one sample (Table 1). 111 In 2013, Garcia et al., ,found Acanthamoeba spp. and Naegleria spp. in 37.45 % and 15.66 % 112 respectively, of the samples collected in reservoirs and water treatment plants in Aragón, Spain. The 113 high proportion of samples with Naegleria [37.5 % (3/8)] in the present study could be associated 114 with the low precipitation rate in this area during the years prior to the sampling for the study which 115 would have favored their concentration (Sente et al, 2016). Two of the 3 FLA identified as Naegleria 116 spp. correspond to the species Naegleria clarki, and the other has 99 % homology with Naegleria 117 clarki (KC527832.1) and with Naegleria gruberi (GU320598.1). Naegleria clarki has been described as

a nonpathogenic FLA; however, it is able to host other microorganisms inside it.

Acanthamoeba was found only in the sample corresponding to natural water from the Sobrón reservoir, in contrast with the high proportion of samples with this genus found by García et al., 2013. The genus Acanthamoeba spp. has been reported as the most common FLA in the environment and is often associated with bacteria-rich water (Bonilla-Lemus et al., 2014).

Vexillifera bacillipedes is a non-encysting amoeba, morphologically very similar to *Acanthamoeba*, which causes disease in fish (Dyková *et al.*, 1998). Its prevalence in the present work [25.0 % (2/8)] was similar to the frequency observed in streams in the Mexico Basin in Central Mexico in 2014 (Bonilla-Lemus *et al.*, 2014).

The composition of FLA populations depends on the characteristics of each ecosystem and the moment of sampling (Bonilla-Lemus *et al.*, 2014; Sente *et al.*, 2016). Amoebas are usually integrated into biofilms (Castrillon Rivera and Palma-Ramos, 2012). When their populations in water are analyzed, only those amoebas that emerge from biofilms and are present in water in high concentrations can be detected. Climate change and the increase in temperatures produces changes in FLA populations favoring the growth of some of them such as those of the *Naegleria* genus which survive and multiply better at high temperatures (Lam *et al.*, 2019). The mussels accumulate those amoebas which are more abundant in the water, and they accumulate FLAs from juveniles to adult whereas the FLAs found in water samples were the dominant amoebas at the sampling moment. In addition, the mussel might prefer some specific genus of FLA. The release of accumulated amoebas upon the death of the mussel can have an impact on the microbial communities of the ecosystem by changing the dominant genus and by increasing the FLA number. When these amoebas are potentially pathogenic for humans or animals, the increase in their concentration in water could pose a health threat..

2.2. ARB identification

A multiplex PCR was performed in order to detect Legionella pneumophila, Mycobacterium spp., Pseudomonas spp and toxic cyanobacteria inside the FLAs (ARB) and in water (Calvo et al., 2013). Thirteen DNA samples were analysed, 8 of them corresponding to FLA cultures, 4 to water and 1 to the flagellate captured. Six (46.2 %) of them were positive, four of them from cultures of FLA, representing 50 % of the FLA analysed (Table 2). This proportion of ARB positive FLAs was similar to that found by Garcia et al. in 2013 in FLAs from reservoirs of the Ebro River (41.9 %). Of the analysed bacteria, Pseudomonas spp. was found inside Naegleria clarki, Vexillifera bacillipedes and Protacanthamoeba bohemica whereas L. pneumophila was also found inside Acanthamoeba pustulosa. Of the amoebas isolated, 44 % (4/9) hosted Legionella spp. and 33 % (3/9) Pseudomonas spp. It should be highlighted that 75.0 % of the amoebas that harbored bacteria simultaneously hosted Pseudomonas spp. and L. pneumophila while the other 25 % only contained L. pneumophila. As an exception, only Legionella spp. was found inside Acanthamoeba spp. isolated from the natural water of the Sobrón reservoir. Mycobacterium spp., and toxic cyanobacterium were not found inside the amoebas. FLAs have an important role in the spread of several pathogens, such as Legionella pneumophila, Mycobacterium, Chlamydia-related bacteria, viruses, and fungi (Goñi et al., 2014; Kebbi-Beghdadi and Greub, 2014). This is one of the most important risks associated with the presence of FLAs, since disinfection treatments do not affect the bacteria within the FLA when the amoebas are in their cystic stage (Cateau et al., 2014; Delafont et al., 2014). It is believed that FLAs are the main niche for replication of Legionella spp. in the environment which in addition, increases their pathogenicity inside the protozoa. When hosted in FLA, Legionella can reach artificial water systems such as ornamental fountains, sprinkler systems, or cooling towers, where the bacterium colonizes ducts and may be released producing Legionella outbreaks if their concentration is high, creating a major public health problem (Thomas et al., 2010).

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Pseudomonas is an environmental bacterium with high intrinsic resistance to several antibiotics and is responsible for a wide range of nosocomial infections, especially in immunocompromised patients (Cateau et al., 2014). Also, Pseudomonas spp. infection is most frequently associated with amoebic keratitis (Dini et al., 2000; Sharma et al., 2013). The simultaneous presence of Pseudomonas and Legionella is surprising due to the ability of many Pseudomonas species to produce bacteriocin and bacteriocin-like substances which are active against Legionella (Guerrieri et al., 2008). The high specificity of these bacteriocins against certain species of Legionella suggests that it is possible that these substances have not been produced or are not active against the Legionella with which Pseudomonas share their habitat. It is also possible that Legionella and Pseudomonas do not come into contact inside the amoebas. Future studies are necessary to clarify these interactions. On the other hand, there are differences between the bacteria identified in the water and inside the amoebas, suggesting that the amoebas come from another point upstream or they were the majority population long ago. Only a small number of bacteria has been analyzed, which are those included in the multiplex PCR used. Given the results obtained, the analysis of other bacteria such as Chlamydiarelated bacteria, Salmonella or Aeromonas, and their quantification for the determination of relative amounts of ARB using quantitative PCR, will be of interest in future research to increase our knowledge of FLA-ARB interactions (Lienard et al., 2011; Moreno-Mesonero et al., 2020.

2.3. Presence of pathogenic bacteria in natural water and zebra mussel

To confirm differences between microorganisms in the water and in the mussel, other bacteria were studied. These were the bacteria found in greater quantities and which can be grown easily and quickly for quantification. The selected bacteria were fecal contamination indicator bacteria and *Salmonella* which in addition provide information about the influence of human activities on aquatic environments. Furthermore, the counting methods guaranteed the viability of the bacteria studied. The quantification of the selected bacteria in the water samples and the mussel extract are shown in Table 3. The concentrations of bacteria in both water and mussels from the Sobrón Reservoir are

higher than those from the Rimer Channel, which explains the greater variety of amoebas found at this point. An index was calculated in order to compare the results obtained at the two sampling points. This index shows how many times a gram of mussel tissue accumulates the number of bacteria contained in the same amount of water. A high index indicates a high accumulation of Salmonella and Clostridium in mussels (Table 3), suggesting a high capacity of D. polymorpha to accumulate these bacteria or a singular discharge. Stands out the low accumulation index for E. coli which indicates a low accumulation in the mussels from both sampling points despite the high concentration of this bacterium in water. This could be due to many factors, such as the use of the bacteria as a primary carbon source (Silverman et al., 1995; Vathanodorn and Parsons, 1996), a preferential uptake of bacteria other than E. coli, or the capacity of these bacteria to multiply in water. The low index for Enterococcus in mussels from the Sobrón with a high concentration in water contrasts with the high value of this index in the Rimer Channel with a low concentration in water reinforcing the hypothesis that there was a discharge time ago. However, the CFUs in the Rimer Irrigation channel are very low, making it difficult to draw conclusions regarding the possible use of zebra mussels in monitoring Enterococcus contamination. Multiple factors, including climatic factors such as temperature and rainfall, the amounts of water that enter a river along its course, and human activity (livestock and agriculture) could affect the survival of bacteria. The counts of indicator bacteria and Salmonella found in the Rimer Channel in this work are similar to those found in the samples taken two years previously (Mosteo et al., 2016), indicating stability in the bacterial community of both the waters and mussels. The main reservoir of Salmonella spp. and Clostridium perfringens is the digestive tract of animals and humans. Considering that animal husbandry and agriculture are the most important activities in the areas under study, the way natural fertilizers are used in agricultural activities and the proximity of population centers could explain the differences in the bacterial counts (www.chebro.es).

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The correlation analysis between total bacterial accumulation in mussels and water showed a moderate correlation (r= 0.74, p<0.01) for the Sobrón Reservoir and a low correlation (r=0.40, p=0.06) for the Rimer Channel. This contrasts with the one found by other authors (Mosteo *et al.*, 2016; Bighiu *et al.*, 2019), questioning the possible use of the mollusc as an indicator of water pollution, but it reinforces the option of its possible use in the detection of past discharges. On the other hand, it is possible that some of the bacteria identified as mussel-accumulated bacteria are located inside the amoebas. If they have been transported into the amoebas, they could not be related to discharges at this point but upstream. This could partly explain the lack of correlation between the bacteria concentration found in the mussel extracts and in the environmental water. However, it should be borne in mind that few sampling points have been taken into account for the correlation study, so future studies are needed to obtain more information, including a study of all the bacteria accumulated in FLAs.

Three morphologically different colonies grew In the culture of water suspension of dead mussel from Sobrón reservoir, which were identified as *Citrobacter braakii, Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* and *Pseudomonas* spp. These bacteria accumulated inside of the zebra mussels may have caused their death in the aquarium, as has been observed by other authors for one species of *Pseudomonas* (Molloy *et al.*, 2013).

2.4. Intestinal protozoa analysis.

Giardia duodenalis and Cryptosporidium spp. were not detected by observation under microscope, either by direct observation, after modified Zielh-Neelsen staining or by PCR techniques, either in zebra mussels or in natural water from both sample sites. Many studies have demonstrated the capacity of zebra mussels to accumulate Giardia duodenalis, Cryptosporidium spp., and Toxoplasma gondii in amounts proportional to their environmental concentration (Graczyk et al., 2004; Palos

Ladeiro *et al.*, 2014; Kerambrun *et al.*, 2016). Although these protozoa are commonly present in water, this was not the case in this study..

As a conclusion, the results of the study show that *Dreissena polymorpha* accumulates bacteria and FLAs, while FLAs accumulate bacteria. When these microorganisms are potentially pathogenic, the death of mussels can increase their concentration in waters and pose a risk to health and the environment. Further studies should be performed to determine if the relationship between *D. polymorpha*, FLAs and ARB corresponds to an endosymbiosis model in which microorganisms are inside one another like a matryoshka doll, as described by Woyke and Schulz (2019)

3. Experimental procedures

3.1. Site description

Natural water and zebra mussels were collected at two sampling points along the Ebro river basin, located in the North East (NE) of Spain. With an area of 85,362 km², the river discharges into the Mediterranean Sea and supplies water to a population of around three million people along its course The sampling site areas selected for this study are described as follows (Fig. 1):

- Point 1: Sobrón reservoir (N 42 ° 45 ′ 42.7 ″, W 3 ° 09 ′ 56.2 ″) located in Santa María de Garoña (Burgos, Spain), in the upper area of the river course, between the Alava and Burgos provinces. The reservoir is used as a water supply and for the generation of hydro-electrical power. Agricultural and livestock activities (mainly poultry and pig farms) occur in the area around and recreational fishing activities are carried out in the reservoir.
- Point 2: The Rimer irrigation channel (N 41 ° 13 ′ 44 ″, E 0 ° 00 ′ 32 ″) downstream from Caspe (Zaragoza, Spain), comes from the Guadalope river (a tributary of the Ebro river), at a point near the river mouth. Agricultural and livestock activities (mainly poultry, pig and rabbit farms) are present in the area.

3.2. Natural water and zebra mussel collection and preservation

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Groups of around 50 zebra mussels of similar size adhered on hard substrates at a depth of less than 1 metre, were randomly selected and manually collected from each of the sampling points. In addition, 1 L of water was taken at the same depth, following the sampling protocol developed by the Ebro Hydrographic Confederation (CHE, 2006). The samples were taken in spring, between 20th March and 3rd June, 2015. The analysis of the mussels was carried out within 48 hours after collection, but some additional specimens were kept until the work was finished in anticipation of possible repetitions or extraordinary analysis. These mussels were preserved in a laboratory-scale aquarium (volume: 100 L) filled with water from the sampling point, under optimal temperature (18-20 °C) and conditions (calcium content, total hardness, pH, dissolved oxygen and conductivity) previously described (Claudi and Mackie, 1994; O'Neill, 1996; Mosteo et al., 2016). During the maintenance of the zebra mussels from the Sobrón Reservoir in the laboratory scale aquarium, the death of a large number of specimens was observed. To study the cause, five of the dead specimens were removed from the shells and the whole soft tissue was suspended in sterile water and incubated at 30 °C for 24 hours. An aliquot of this suspension was cultured on Muller-Hilton agar (Scharlau®) supplemented with 5 % of ram blood and incubated at 37 °C for 24 hours. The colonies that grew in this media were identified by the API system. The suspension of dead mussels in water was included as an additional sample in subsequent trials. A homogeneous extract was obtained with the zebra mussel soft tissue and interstitial water. Individuals with a similar valve size, between 1.8 and 2.1 cm, were randomly selected among the specimens collected. The valves and the byssus were removed and approximately 2 g (corresponding to 5 specimens) of wet soft tissue were weighed, pooled, ground, and homogenized with 10 mL of phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). This extract was divided into aliquots for the bacteriological analysis and protozoa identification. Samples of natural water, the extract of zebra mussel and water suspension of dead mussels were cultured with non-nutritive agar (NNA) plates seeded with preheated E. coli, incubated at 30 ºC during 15 days, and microscopically observed daily, searching forthe growth of FLAs. Those plates in which no growth of FLAs was observed were considered negative. When FLA growth was observed, subcultures were performed on fresh NNA to prevent fungal contamination and to isolate the different FLA present. The morphologically distinct FLAs were subcultured in different fresh NNA plates at least 4 times, to ensure that the ARBs to be identified were located inside the amoeba (Calvo *et al.*, 2013). Morphological criteria documented by Smirnov and Goodkov (1999) were used and complemented with Page (1988) identification keys.

3.3. DNA Extraction, PCR Techniques, and Nucleotide Sequencing

DNA extraction from natural water, amoeba cultures, and zebra mussel samples was performed

using a commercial kit (Norgen Biotek Corp Stool DNA Isolation Kit, Ontario, Canada).

Generic and specific PCRs were used to identify the genera and species of FLA present in the zebra

mussel and water with the primers and protocols shown in Table 4.

Amoeba resistant bacteria were studied by a pentaplex-nested-PCR described by Calvo et al. (2013)

using as a template the DNA of FLAs isolated from natural water samples and zebra mussel extract

(Table 4). In addition, the analysis was performed with DNA extracted directly from the water sample

and mussel extract, to determine the possible relationship between the bacteria detected in the

watercourse, the zebra mussel and the FLA isolated in both samples. This PCR identified the presence

of Mycobacterium, Legionella, Pseudomonas and toxic cyanobacteria.

The amplicons obtained were purified using the commercial kit GFX™ PCR ADN and the Gel Band

Purification Kit (GE Healthcare) and subjected to direct sequencing in the two directions. The

sequences obtained were analysed using the BioEdit® alignment program and a data-processing tool

(Basic Local Alignment Search Tool of the National Centre for Biotechnology Information, NCBI) and

compared with sequences deposited in the database GenBank under accession numbers MH678804-

312 MH678815 and MH675517.

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3.4. Bacteriological and intestinal protozoa analysis

314 To analyze the accumulation of bacteria in the zebra mussel, bacteria indicators of fecal 315 contamination, Salmonella and Pseudomonas were selected. 316 Detection of Clostridium perfringens, Enterococcus spp., Escherichia coli, and Salmonella spp., was 317 carried out from water and mussel extracts by the spread plate standard method 9215C or by the 318 membrane filtration method. A filtration ramp, the Microfil® Filtration Funnels kit with S-pack™ and 319 0.45 μm Millipore® sterile filters were used for Enterococcus spp., Escherichia coli, and Salmonella spp. detection, while 0.22 µm Millipore® sterile filters were used for Clostridium perfringens 320 321 detection. The assays were undertaken in triplicate. In the case of Clostridium perfringens analysis, 322 only the membrane filtration method was performed. 323 The culture and enumeration of the bacteria were performed by following the procedures specified: 324 C. perfringens: UNE-EN ISO 26461-2:1986. Using SPS agar (Scharlau®). 325 Enterococcus spp.: UNE-EN ISO 7899-2:2000. Slanetz & Bartley agar (Scharlau®). E. coli: UNE-EN ISO 9308-1:2000. Using McConkey agar (Scharlau®) 326 327 Salmonella spp.: UNE-EN ISO 19250:2010. Using Salmonella-Shigella agar (Scharlau®). 328 Colony enumeration was undertaken in terms of colony-forming units (CFUs) per 100 mL in natural 329 water samples and CFUs per wet gram of zebra mussel soft tissue. These concentrations were 330 transformed into log10 for correlation studies. Intestinal protozoa were investigated by direct observation of the mussel extract by optic microscopy 331 332 (Nikon Eclipse 80i) at 10 X, 40 X, and 100 X magnifications. To identify Cryptosporidium oocysts and 333 other coccidians, modified Zielh-Neelsen staining was performed. 334 The sterile water suspension that was visualized by microscopy was subjected to the same analysis as 335 the extracts obtained from the mussels.

3.5. Statistical analysis

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To assess the mussel's ability to concentrate each bacterium, an index was defined as the resulting value of dividing CFU·g mussel-1/ CFU·g water-1, considering the water density as 1 gram per mL,

giving an idea of the bacteria accumulated in the mussel compared to those in the water. This index is an approximation that allows a comparison of the results obtained at the two sampling points. The relationship between the total concentration of bacteria accumulated in the mussel and in the water was evaluated by the Spearman correlation coefficient. The significance threshold was p<0.05. 3.6. Ethical and legal aspects Legal permission was obtained for the sampling, handling, and storage of zebra mussel specimens in this study. Once the research was finalized, the bivalves were destroyed as described by the Ebro Hydrographic Confederation (CHE, 2011) protocol, with an adequate dosage of NaClO. Acknowledgements: This work was financed by the Gobierno de Aragón (Spain) (Research Reference .OR, Team Water and Environmental Health B43_20R) and co-financed by Feder 2014-2020 "Building Europe from Aragón". Conflict of interest: None to declare

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Figure 1. Sampling Points

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Figure 2.- Microscope visualization of the extract obtained from dead mussels: 1-5 Cercomonadida. Picture 6- Cercomonadida and Naegleria spp. Flagellate. Picture 7- Naegleria spp. cyst. Picture8- Naegleria spp. trophozoite. Magnifications: Pictures 4 and 7, 100 X; Pictures 1-2: 400 X; Pictures 5, 6 and 8: 1000 X and Picture 3, 5: 2000 X. The pictures 2.1 to 2.5 correspond to images of Cercomonadida. In picture 2.6 Naegleria spp. appears together with Cercomonadida in its characteristic flagellate development stage, the main difference between them is the position of the base of the flagella, separated in Cercomonadida. The images 2.7 and , tropho₂ 2.8 show Naegleria spp. cysts and a trophozoite, respectively.

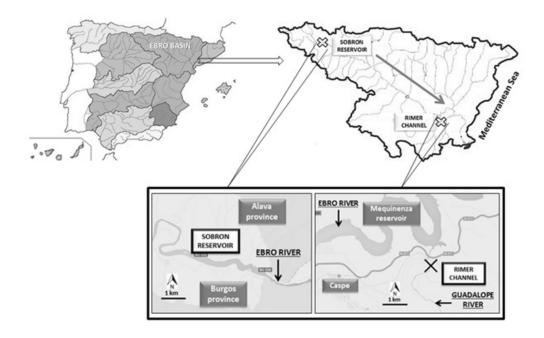


Figure 1. Sampling Points 47x30mm (323 x 323 DPI)

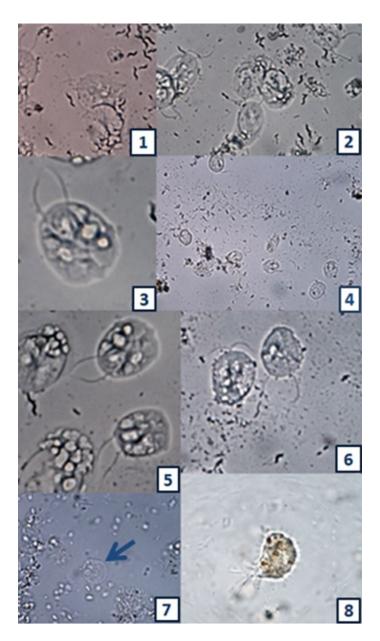


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28x49mm (421 x 421 DPI)

Table 1. Free living amoeba and flagellate identification.

point	Sample (nº of isolates)	Identified FLA species
	Natural water (1)	Acanthamoeba spp.
Sobrón reservoir	Zebra mussel extract (1)	Naegleria clarki
	Dead mussels extract (3)	Naegleria clarki. Vexillifera bacillipedes Cercomonadida
Rimer	Natural water (2)	<i>Naegleria</i> spp. Not identified FLA
irrigation channel	Zebra mussel	Vexillifera bacillipedes
	extract (2)	Protacanthamoeba bohemica

Table 2. Endosymbiont bacteria identified in FLA and in water.

		ARB from FLA a	Bacteria from direct analysis			
Sample point	Sample	FLA	Amoeba Resistant Bacteria (ARB)	In Zebra mussel extract	In Natural water	
	Natural water	Acanthamoeba pustulosa	Legionella spp.			
Sobrón reservoir Dead mussel	Naegleria clarki	Pseudomonas spp. Legionella spp.	-	Mycobacterium spp.		
		Vexillifera bacillipedes	Pseudomonas spp. Legionella spp		SPP.	
Rimer irrigation	Zebra mussel	Protacanthamoeba	Pseudomonas spp.	Mycobacterium spp.		
channel	extract	bohemica	Legionella spp	Legionella spp.	-	

Table 3. Bacterial analysis of natural water and Zebra mussel extracts.

	Rimer irrigation channel				Sobrón reservoir		
Bacteria	Natural water (CFU 100mL ⁻¹) N=3	Zebra mussel (CFU g ⁻¹ mussel) N=3	Index	Natural water (CFU 100mL ⁻¹) N=3	Zebra mussel (CFU g ⁻¹ mussel) N=3	Index	
C. perfringens	$5.6 \pm 1.4 \cdot 10^2$	6.4 ±1.5 · 10 ²	114.3	1.9 ±0.0 · 10 ⁴	2.6 ±0.0 · 10 ⁴	136.8	
E. coli	$5.9 \pm 1.2 \cdot 10^3$	2.3 ±0.0 · 10 ²	3.9	2.3 ±0.1 · 10 ⁴	8.3 ±2.3 · 10 ²	3.6	
Salmonella spp.	88 ± 12	4.0 ±0.9 · 10 ²	454.5	2.9 ±0.1 · 10 ⁴	5.1 ±0.3 · 10 ⁴	175.9	
Enterococcus spp.	34 ± 5	70 ± 42	205.9	$9.0 \pm 1.4 \cdot 10^{2}$	$2.3 \pm 0.0 \cdot 10^{2}$	25.5	

Data shown are mean ± standard deviation; N: times that each analysis has been repeated

The index was defined as the resulting value of dividing CFU·g mussel-1/ CFU·g water-1, considering the water density as 1 gram per mL

Specificity	Gene	Primers	Sequence 5'→3'	Size (pb)	Reference
Acanthamoeba	ASA.S1 (DF3)	JDP 1	GCCCAGATCGTTTACCGTGAA	500	Schroeder et al.,
Acantnamoepa		JDP 2	TCTCACAAGCTCTAGGGAGTCA	500	2001 32
Hartmannella v					
Naegleria fowleri					
Vanella spp.					
Vahlkampfia ovis		FLA F	CGCGGTAATTCCAGCTCCAATAGC	222.4522	Tsvekova et al.
A. castellanii	185				
A. poluphaga	rDNA			800-1500	2004 ³³
A. lenticulaa		FLA R	CAGGTTAAGGTCTCGTTCGTTAAC		
A. hatchetti					
A. comandonni					
A. astronyxis					
A	176	ITS 1	GAACCTGCGTAGGGATCATTT		
Naegleria spp	ITS	ITS 2	TTTCTTTCCTCCCCTTATTA	400 450	Pelandakis et al.
	5.8S	Fw 1	GTGAAAACCTTTTTTCCATTTACA	400-453	2002 34
Naegleria fowleri	rRNA	Fw 2	AAATAAAAGATTGACCATTTGAAA		
_ ,	185	EUK F	AACCTGGTTGATCCTGCCAGTAGTCAT		
Eukariota	rDNA	EUK R	GCTTGATCCTTCTGCAGGTTCACCTAC	Variable	Hirt et al., 1997 ³
	SSU rRNA	SSU 1	TTCTAGAGTAATACATGCG	1325 826-864	- Xiao et al., 1999 ^a
Cryptosporidium		SSU 2	CCCTAATCCTTCGAAACAGGA		
spp.		SSU 3	GGAAGGGTTGTATTTATTAGATAAAG		
		SSU 4	AAGGAGTAAGGAACAACCTCCA		
	tpi -	AL3543	AAATTATGCCTGCTCGTCG	605 530	Sulaiman et al., 2003 ³⁷
Giarda		AL3546	CAAACCTTTTCCGCAAACC		
duodenalis		AL3544	CCCTTCATCGGTGGTAACTT		
		AL3545	GTGGCCACCACTCCCGTGCC		
	mip -	Mip-Leg-F 186	GCATTGGTGCCGATTTGG	186	Roch and Maurin 2005 ³⁸
Legionella		Mip-Leg-R 186	GTTTTGCATCAAATCTTTCTG		
pneumophila		N-Mip-Leg-F 186	GAAGCAATGGCTAAAGGCATGCAA	-	Calvo L. et al., 2013 ²³
		SN-Mip-Leg-R186	GCTTTGCCATCAAATCTTCTGAAACTTG	112	
	тсуD -	McyD-dir	GAGCATTAAGGGCTAAATCG	282 194	Calvo L. et al., 2013 ²³
Toxic		McyD-rev	CTTGGTGCTTCATCAACTC		
Cyanobacteria		N-McyD-dir	TCATAGCCCCATATCCTTTAGCGGC		
		N-McyD-rev	CTGCTGTATCTTTAATTGGCTCGGC		
	hsp65	Hsp65-dir	CCCGTACGAGAAGATCGG	354 300	Calvo L. et al., 2013 ²³
Mycobacterium		Hsp65-rev	GACTCCTCGACGGTGATG		
spp.		N-Hsp65-dir	GAGCTGGTCAAGGAAGTCGCC		
		N-Hsp65-rev	GTTGCCGACCTTGTCCATCGA		
		R16S-dir	GGTCTGAGAGGATGATCAGT		Calvo L. et al., 2013 ²³
Pseudomonas	165	R16S-rev	TCTGTACCGACCATTGTAGC	962	
spp.	rDNA	N-R16S-dir	GACGTTACCGACAGAATAAGCACCG	4	
		N-R16S-rev	ACCCACATGCTCCACCGCTTGTG	476	

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