

1	Diversity and dynamics of antibiotic-resistant bacteria in cheese as determined by
2	PCR denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis
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10	Short title: DGGE analysis of antibiotic resistance in cheese
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18 Abstract

19 This work reports the composition and succession of tetracycline- and erythromycinresistant bacterial communities in a model cheese, monitored by polymerase chain 20 21 reaction denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (PCR-DGGE). Bacterial 16S rRNA genes were examined using this technique to detect structural changes in the cheese 22 microbiota over manufacturing and ripening. Total bacterial genomic DNA, used as a 23 template, was extracted from cultivable bacteria grown without and with tetracycline or 24 erythromycin (both at 25 μ g ml⁻¹) on a non-selective medium used for enumeration of 25 total and viable cells (Plate Count agar with Milk; PCA-M), and from those grown on 26 27 selective and/or differential agar media used for counting various bacterial groups; i.e., lactic acid bacteria (de Man, Rogosa and Sharpe agar; MRSA), micrococci and 28 staphylococci (Baird-Parker agar; BPA), and enterobacteria (Violet Red Bile Glucose 29 30 agar; VRBGA). Large numbers of tetracycline- and erythromycin-resistant bacteria were detected in cheese samples at all stages of ripening. Counts of antibiotic-resistant 31 32 bacteria varied widely depending on the microbial group and the point of sampling. In 33 general, resistant bacteria were $0.5-1.0 \text{ Log}_{10}$ units fewer in number than the corresponding susceptible bacteria. The PCR-DGGE profiles obtained with DNA 34 35 isolated from the plates for total bacteria and the different bacterial groups suggested Escherichia coli, Lactococcus lactis, Enterococcus faecalis and Staphylococcus spp. as 36 the microbial types resistant to both antibiotics tested. This study shows the suitability 37 of the PCR-DGGE technique for rapidly identifying and tracking antibiotic resistant 38 39 populations in cheese and, by extension, in other foods.

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41 Key words: Antibiotic resistance; cheese; denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis;

42 DGGE; lactic acid bacteria; non-starter lactic acid bacteria

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44 **1. Introduction**

Antibiotic resistance increases the cost of treatment of infections and can be the 45 cause of therapeutic failure (Anderson and Hughes, 2010). The spread of antibiotic 46 resistance to human and animal pathogens is therefore of great concern. The food chain 47 48 is thought to be one of the main routes via which such resistance spreads (Rossi et al., 49 2014). The transfer of genes from resistant to susceptible bacteria may occur during food manufacture or during transit through the gastrointestinal tract (Rossi et al., 2014; 50 Gazzola et al., 2012). Fermented foods, such as cheese, in which several bacterial types 51 52 grow to high cell densities, are key players in the transmission of antibiotic resistance between beneficial/commensal and pathogenic bacteria (Nawaz et al., 2011). Complex 53 bacterial communities composed of the natural cheese microbiota plus an array of 54 55 environmental microorganisms develop and change in fermented foods over time, particularly in starter-free, raw-milk cheeses (Flórez and Mayo, 2006). 56 57 Cheeses made from raw milk have been reported to sometimes contain high antibiotic resistance gene loads (Flórez et al., 2014; Manuzon et al., 2007). The 58 characterization of the bacterial species involved via conventional, culture-dependent 59 60 analysis can, however, be difficult due to the intrinsic limitations of this approach (it is time consuming, expensive, and has a high manpower demand, etc.) (Devirgiliis et al., 61 2013; Gazzola et al., 2012; Nawaz et al., 2011). To overcome this, a number of culture-62 independent molecular methods have been developed in recent decades, including 63 64 conventional polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and quantitative PCR (qPCR) amplification, temporal temperature gel electrophoresis (TTGE), denaturing gradient gel 65 electrophoresis (DGGE), and the construction and analysis of metagenomic libraries 66 (Devirgiliis et al., 2014; Flórez et al., 2014; Manuzon et al., 2007). 67

Since its first use in Microbial Ecology research in the early 90s (Muyzer et al., 68 1993), DGGE analysis of rRNA-encoding genes amplified by PCR (PCR-DGGE) has 69 become a widely used tool for investigating the microbial diversity of food ecosystems, 70 71 including milk, cheese and other dairy products [for recent reviews see Cocolin et al. (2013) and Quigley et al. (2011)]. Given the source of the nucleic acids used in PCR-72 DGGE, the technique can be performed in two ways: DNA or RNA can be extracted 73 directly from the food matrix (direct PCR-DGGE), or be purified from cultivable 74 75 bacteria harvested from non-selective and/or selective/differential media (indirect PCR-DGGE). The technical aspects, advantages and biases of these two alternatives have 76 77 been discussed elsewhere (Ercolini, 2004). Direct PCR-DGGE has already been applied to analyse the polymorphism of tetracycline resistance genes in dairy and environmental 78 samples (Flórez et al., 2014; Aminov et al., 2001; Chee-Sanford et al., 2001), as well as 79 80 for tracking antibiotic resistant transconjugants in an experimentally-inoculated food (Gazzola et al., 2012). The indirect PCR-DGGE method has been successfully used for 81 82 studying the microbiology of water buffalo Mozzarella- and Gouda-type cheeses 83 (Ricciardi et al., 2014; van Hoorde et al., 2010; Ercolini et al., 2004). The present work examines the diversity and dynamics of antibiotic-resistant 84 85 bacterial communities of a traditional cheese during the manufacture and ripening, using the PCR-DGGE technique. Tetracycline and erythromycin were selected as the target 86 antibiotics since resistance to them is widely spread among lactic acid bacteria species 87 (Ammor et al., 2007), thus having the highest risk of horizontal transfer. Cabrales, a 88 89 Spanish traditional, blue-veined cheese made from raw milk without the use of starter and ripening cultures (Flórez and Mayo, 2006) was selected as the cheese model. The 90 91 PCR-DGGE technique was used after harvesting cultivable bacteria grown on a nonselective medium and on selective/differential media (for counting bacteria of different 92

93	groups). To our knowledge, this is the first study in which indirect PCR-DGGE has
94	been used to characterise the bacterial populations involved in antibiotic resistance in
95	cheese along manufacturing and ripening stages. The technique was found valuable for
96	identifying, quantifying and tracking tetracycline- and erythromycin-resistant
97	communities.
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99	2. Material and methods
100	2.1 Cheese samples
101	One batch of Cabrales cheese was made following the traditional manufacturing
102	procedure, which involves the use of raw milk but no commercial starter culture or
103	mould spores. Samples were taken from the cheese at days 3, 7, 15, 30 and 60 of
104	ripening. Cubes of 10 g from the cheese core were cut aseptically and homogenized at
105	45°C for 1 min in a Colworth Stomacher 400 (Seward Ltd., London, UK) with 90 ml of
106	a sterile 2% (w/v) sodium citrate solution.
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118 International) after incubation at 37°C for 24 h. The respective antibiotic-resistant

119 populations were enumerated on the same media as above supplemented with 25 μ g ml⁻

120 ¹ of either tetracycline or erythromycin.

Bacterial cells from plates showing semi-confluent colonies were harvested by
vigorous washing in sterile phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). Cells were then suspended
in Brain Heart Infusion broth (BHI) (VWR International) supplemented with 25%

124 glycerol (Merck) and maintained at -80°C until use.

125

126 2.3 DNA extraction from cultivable bacteria

127 Total DNA from cultivable bacteria (susceptible and/or resistant) was isolated from

128 180 μ l of the BHI-glycerol suspensions. Cell pellets were collected by centrifugation

and suspended in the same volume of a lysis buffer containing 20 mg ml⁻¹ lysozyme

130 (Merck), 200 U mutanolysin (Sigma-Aldrich), 50 μg ml⁻¹ lysostaphin (Sigma-Aldrich),

131 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 2 mM EDTA and 1.2% Triton-X-100 (Merck). This lysis

suspension was then incubated at 37°C for 1 h and the DNA extracted using the DNeasy

133 Blood and Tissue kit (Qiagen), according to the manufacturer's protocol. The DNA

134 concentration was adjusted to 100 ng μ l⁻¹ and stored at -20°C until analysis. Genomic

135 DNA was also extracted and purified from well-identified bacteria strains, which have

been previously isolated from Cabrales cheese (Flórez and Mayo, 2006). PCR

amplicons from these strains were used as DGGE standards.

138

139 2.4 PCR-DGGE amplification and electrophoresis conditions

140 Purified total and genomic DNA was used as a template for the amplification of the

141 V3 region of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene by PCR using two universal primers: 357F

142 (5' CCTACGGGAGGCAGCAG 3') and 518R (5' GTATTACCGCGGCTGCTGG 3').

143 A GC clamp of 40 nucleotides

144 the 5' end of the forward primer (357F-GC), as described by Muyzer et al. (1993). The 145 PCR reaction mixtures contained 3 µl of total DNA, 25 µl of Taq Master Mix 146 (Ampliqon), 1 μ l of each of the primers (10 μ M) and 20 μ l of H₂O in a total volume of 147 50 µl. The PCR amplification conditions were as follow: an initial cycle at 95°C for 5 148 min, 30 cycles at 95°C for 30 s, 56°C for 30 s, 72°C for 1 min, and a final extension step 149 150 at 72°C for 10 min. DGGE was performed in a DCode apparatus (Bio-Rad) using 8% polyacrylamide 151 gels with denaturing ranges of 40-60%. Electrophoresis ran at 60°C and 75 V for 17 h. 152

The resulting gels were stained in an ethidium bromide solution (0.5 μg ml⁻¹) for 15
min, rinsed with water, and photographed under UV light using a G-Box system

155 (Syngene).

156

157 2.5 Identification of PCR-DGGE bands

PCR-DGGE bands were identified by comparing their migration with that of 158 amplicons from standards. Further, DNA from the bands was extracted by cutting out 159 part of each using a micropipette tip and allowing their contents to diffuse out overnight 160 161 at 4°C into sterile, nuclease-free water (Sigma-Aldrich). The resulting DNA solution was used as a template for re-amplification, using the same pair of primers but without 162 163 the GC clamp, and under the same PCR conditions as above. The presence of 164 amplification products was checked in 1% agarose gel after ethidium bromide staining. Amplicons were then purified to remove any unincorporated primers and nucleotides 165 166 using the ATP Gel/PCR Extraction kit (ATP Biotech). The purified amplicons were sequenced using the 357F primer, and the resulting sequences compared with those 167

- deposited in the GenBank (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST/) and Ribosomal
- 169 Database Project (<u>http://rdp.cme.msu.edu/index.jsp</u>) databases. As reported elsewhere
- 170 (Stackebrandt et al., 2002), sequences sharing a percentage identity of 97% or higher to
- those in the databases were considered to belong to the same species.
- 172

173 **3. Results**

174 *3.1 Counting of bacterial populations in cheese*

175 Large numbers of antibiotic-resistant bacteria were detected in samples at all stages of ripening. Both tetracycline- and erythromycin-resistant counts varied widely (from 176 10^2 to $>10^8$ cfu g⁻¹) depending on the bacterial group in question and the sampling point 177 (Fig. 1). The presence of antibiotics caused a significantly decrease in counts ($p \le 0.05$; 178 Student's t-Test) of all bacterial groups. In general, counts of resistant bacteria were 179 180 around 1.0 Log₁₀ units fewer in number than those corresponding to susceptible bacteria. The numbers of erythromycin-resistant enterobacteria were, however, equal to 181 182 those recovered from PCA-M plates without the antibiotic. Resistant and susceptible 183 populations reached a maximum on about day 3, and decreased slowly afterwards -

184 except for the LAB community, among which the antibiotic-susceptible bacteria

185 reached their maximum at day seven while the antibiotic-resistant bacteria did so on day

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188 3.2 Analysis of the diversity and dynamics of cheese populations by PCR-DGGE

The PCR-DGGE profiles of the total, tetracycline-resistant and erythromycinresistant cultivable bacteria differed over ripening (Figs. 2-5). As a general trend, either in the absence or in the presence of antibiotics, the PCR-DGGE patterns obtained for day 3 samples showed the largest numbers of bands (largest diversity); this number fell from that point onwards as ripening progressed. In total, 105 bands were obtained, of
which 99 were identified at either the genus or species level following excision from the
gel, DNA purification, re-amplification, sequencing and comparison with sequences in
databases. A summary of the identification results of sequences from PCR-DGGE
bands and their closest relatives in databases is provided in Supplementary Table 1.
Further, representative nucleotide sequences from the bands are depicted in
Supplementary Figure 1.

200

201 *3.2.1 PCR-DGGE profiles for total mesophilic bacteria*

202 The PCR-DGGE profiles for the total cultivable bacteria grown on the PCA-M plates 203 showed 4-10 bands depending on the ripening time (Fig. 2A, 2B and 2C). Some bands 204 were present in all samples both in the presence and absence of antibiotics, while others 205 were only present in certain samples. For example, bands i and j were only observed in 206 the 30- and 60-day old cheese samples in the presence of tetracycline (Fig. 2B, line 4 207 and 5); these bands were assigned to the genus Enterococcus. In contrast, a prominent 208 band matching the sequence of Lactococcus lactis (band b) was observed in all but one cheese sample (Fig. 2A, 2B and 2C). In the absence of antibiotics (Fig. 2A), the most 209 complex profile was observed for the day 60 sample (Fig. 2A, line 5), at which time 210 211 several *Enterococcus* and *Staphylococcus* spp. were shown to accompany the bands of L. lactis (band b) and Lactobacillus plantarum (band c). The complexity of the PCR-212 DGGE profiles in the presence of tetracycline (Fig. 2B) increased with ripening (Fig. 213 214 2B, lines 4 and 5). The patterns for tetracycline- and erythromycin-resistant bacteria reflected the same species as before (Fig. 2A), except that the band corresponding to Lb. 215 216 plantarum (band c) was not present. Numerous and diverse bands for species of Enteroboacteriaceae (bands a) were identified in the cultures from the PCA-M plates 217

218 with and without antibiotics, including a prominent band in all gels corresponding to

219 Escherichia coli (band d). Abrupt changes in this latter band were detected in

220 consecutive samples; the same was seen in the presence of tetracycline (Fig. 2B, lines 2,

221 3 and 4) and erythromycin (Fig. 2C, lines 1 and 2).

222

223 3.2.2 PCR-DGGE profiles for lactic acid bacteria

224 Marked differences were observed between the profiles of LAB cells recovered in

225 MRSA without antibiotics (Fig. 3A) and cultures supplemented with tetracycline (Fig.

3B) and erythromycin (Fig. 3C). Though MRS is a strongly selective medium for

227 lactobacilli, L. lactis and other LAB species could still grow. In the absence of

antibiotics, a very intense band corresponding to *L. lactis* (band f) was observed at day 3

(Fig. 3A, line 1). However, this band was barely observed in subsequent samples in the

absence of antibiotics (Fig. 3A, lines 2 to 5); in fact, a prominent band for *Lb*.

231 *plantarum* (band b) appeared instead. Surprisingly, the communities recovered in

232 MRSA in the presence of tetracycline (Fig. 3B) and erythromycin (Fig. C) were

233 composed of *L. lactis* (band f) and *Enterococcus faecalis* (band h). The latter species

became dominant at the end of ripening (in 30- and 60-day old cheese samples).

235

236 3.2.3 PCR-DGGE profiles for micrococci and staphylococci

The profile obtained on day 3 for bacteria recovered from the BPA plates in the absence of antibiotics showed six bands (Fig. 4, line 1). This number was reduced to one in day 7-15 samples, but increased again to five-six in the day 30 and day 60 samples. The sequence of the most intense bands matched that of *Ent. faecalis* (band b) both in the presence and absence of antibiotics. This suggests again that, although

242 Baird-Parker is a selective medium for counting micrococci and staphylococci, it does

not restrict the growth of *Enterococcus* spp. In fact, a majority of staphylococci-related
bands (allocated to the *Staphylococcus epidermidis-Staphylococcus aureus* speciesgroup) was only identified in the absence of antibiotics on day 3 (Fig. 4A, line 1). Bands
belonging to other staphylococcal groups were also observed at the end of ripening in
the absence of antibiotics (Fig. 4A, lines 4 and 5), as well as in the presence of
erythromycin (Fig. 4C).

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250 3.2.4 PCR-DGGE profiles for Enterobacteriaceae

As for the other bacterial groups, different PCR-DGGE patterns were observed for 251 252 the enterobacteria recovered from the VRBGA plates both in the absence (Fig. 5A) and presence of tetracycline (Fig. 5B). As expected, the profiles recorded for these bacteria 253 when grown in the presence of erythromycin were identical to those when no antibiotic 254 255 was present (Fig. 5C). Due to the high nucleotide identity of the 16S rRNA genes 256 shared by the species of this family, most enterobacterial bands could only be identified 257 at the family level. The exceptions were those corresponding to E. coli (band b) and 258 Enterobacter cloacae (band c). The profile of the cultures from the day 3 cheese sample grown in the absence of antibiotics showed 14 bands (Fig. 5A, line 1), suggesting this 259 group to be diverse in raw milk at the beginning of ripening. Of these bands, only five 260 261 were seen at later times during ripening, with E. coli the most prominent from day 7 onwards (Fig. 5A, lines 2 to 5). The profiles for tetracycline resistant enterobacteria 262 showed a single band belonging to the species E. coli, except at 30 days of ripening 263 264 (Fig. 5B). This indicates that E. coli was dominant among the enterobacteria resistant to tetracycline throughout the ripening process. 265

266

267 **4. Discussion**

Large numbers of antibiotic-resistant bacteria and genes have been repeatedly reported in foods, including dairy products (Florez et al., 2014; Devirgiliis et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2006). The development of suitable methods for examining the diversity and dynamics of resistant populations would contribute towards the characterization of the microbes carrying antibiotic resistances. This knowledge is pivotal in the proposal and assessment of strategies aimed at reducing antibiotic resistance loads and limiting the spread of antibiotic resistance genes via the food chain.

275 The presence of large numbers of resistant species mostly in cheese made from raw milk might correlate with the presence of high levels of antibiotic residues in the milk 276 277 environment (Brunton et al., 2014), as reported for other ecosystems (Gao et al., 2012; 278 Fan and He, 2011). The lower numbers of resistant populations as compared to those susceptible do not appear to be associated with an intrinsic antagonist effect of 279 280 antibiotic-containing media in growth. Indeed, enterobacteria counts with and without 281 erythromycin were identical (Figure 1). It is said that the biological cost of the 282 resistances is not very high because resistant bacteria increase fitness by compensating 283 mutations (Sousa et al., 2012). It has also been speculated that environmental conditions during fermentation and/or ripening might contribute to the maintenance of antibiotic 284 285 resistance in food-borne bacteria (Rossi et al., 2014). However, the present counts 286 suggested that the wild-type, non-resistant variants grow faster and reach higher cell densities under cheese manufacturing conditions. 287

Marked differences were seen between the PCR-DGGE profiles obtained in the presence and absence of antibiotics for all bacterial groups analysed in this study. The appearance and disappearance of majority (more intense) bands reveals sharp changes in the composition and structure of the microbial communities. The reduction in the

292 number of bands correlates with a reduction in microbial diversity, suggesting that most 293 of the dominant bacterial populations of this cheese are susceptible to both antibiotics. The PCR-DGGE profiles of the tetracycline- and erythromycin-resistant populations 294 295 were composed mainly of *L. lactis* and *Enterococcus* spp. bands, which agrees well 296 with results reported elsewhere regarding the large number of strains of these species showing resistance to tetracycline and erythromycin and the carriage of dedicated 297 298 resistance genes (Pesavento et al., 2014; Devirgiliis et al., 2010; Flórez et al., 2008). In 299 particular, Enterococcus species from different food environments have been found highly resistant to these antibiotics (Pesavento et al., 2014; Valenzuela et al., 2008). 300 301 Species of this genus are thought to act as a reservoir of antibiotic resistance genes, 302 from which they might be transferred to food-borne pathogens (EFSA, 2014). However, 303 the abundance and intensity of L. lactis bands obtained in media with tetracycline and 304 erythromycin argue for this species forming the majority antibiotic-resistant population 305 in the present cheese model. Under the actual concern of spreading antibiotic resistances 306 via the food chain (Rossi et al., 2014), it is unacceptable the presence in cheese of 307 technologically-relevant species carrying antibiotic resistances, which argues for the establishment of improved hygienic practices in traditional cheese manufacture. 308 309 Mesophilic lactobacilli have been shown to form subdominant populations in many 310 cheese varieties (Wouters et al., 2002). Although lactobacilli harbouring tetracycline and erythromycin resistance genes have been reported (Comunian et al., 2010; Feld et 311 312 al., 2009), the presence of PCR-DGGE bands belonging to Lactobacillus species were 313 never seen for cultivable bacteria growing on antibiotic-containing media. Thus, the populations of lactobacilli in the present cheese type seem to have no resistance to either 314 315 antibiotic. The present data do not guarantee the complete absence of antibiotic-resistant

316 lactobacilli, however, since the larger numbers of other resistant groups (such as

317 lactococci and enterococci) might mask their detection.

PCR-DGGE bands belonging to *Staphylococcus* spp. appeared mostly at the end of 318 319 ripening, suggesting that staphylococci develop when the cheese matrix approaches the 320 neutrality (pH 7.0). Antibiotic resistances in Staphylococcus aureus, coagulase-negative 321 staphylococci and other staphylococci species has been repeatedly reported (Jamali et 322 al., 2014; Spanu et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2012; Resch et al., 2008). However, the PCR-323 DGGE findings of this study suggest that the major carriers of antibiotic resistance proved to be members of the species groups Staphylococcus simulans and 324 Staphylococcus saprophyticus. 325 The intrinsic nature of erythromycin resistance in enterobacteria (Liu et al., 2010) 326 327 was the cause for identical counts and the same PCR-DGGE patterns of this group in 328 the absence of antibiotics and in the presence of erythromycin. E. coli was the only 329 enterobacterial species resistant to tetracycline. Its resistance to this antibiotic has been 330 extensively documented, particularly in pathogenic strains of animal and human origin 331 (Karczmarczyk et al., 2011; Guerra et al., 2003). The abrupt changes in the band of E. coli from consecutive samples may be a reflection of a heterogeneous spatial 332 333 distribution for E. coli within the cheese matrix. As mentioned earlier, the presence of 334 enterobacteria-related bands in the profiles for total cultivable bacteria grown with 335 erythromycin was due to intrinsic resistance. 336

337 **5.** Conclusion

In this study we report on the use of the indirect PCR-DGGE technique for studying
antibiotic-resistant bacterial communities in a model cheese made from raw milk
without commercial starters. This method was shown to be suitable for identifying and

tracking antibiotic-resistant bacteria in cheese. Conceivable, it could also serve for 341 342 similar purposes in other foods. Tracking resistant bacteria and the genes they encode might be accomplished in the near future through the use of Next Generation 343 344 Sequencing techniques. In our cheese model, E. coli, L. lactis, Ent. faecalis, and Staphylococcus spp. were the microbial types involved in antibiotic resistance. The 345 discovery of large numbers of resistant populations in cheese advocates for the 346 347 establishment of stronger hygienic practices in cheese manufacture. Pasteurisation of 348 milk and/or the use of well-characterized, starter and adjunct cultures devoid of resistance determinants could further help to control antibiotic resistance spread. 349 350 351 Acknowledgements 352 The study was partially supported by projects from the Spanish Ministry of Economy 353 and Competitiveness (Ref. AGL2014-57820-R) and Plan for Science, Technology and 354 Innovation 2013-2017 of the Asturias Principality, co-funded by FEDER (Ref. 355 GRUPIN14-137). A.B. Flórez was supported by a research contract from CSIC under 356 the JAE-Doc Program. 357 358 **Conflict of interest:** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest. 359 References 360 Aminov, R. I., N. Garrigues-Jeanjean, and R. I. Mackie. 2001. Molecular ecology of 361 362 tetracycline resistance: development and validation of primers for detection of tetracycline resistance genes encoding ribosomal protection proteins. Applied and 363

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Figure Captions

Figure 1.- Counts of total (panel A) and representative (panels B through D) microbial groups in cheese at different stages of ripening in media supplemented or not with tetracycline or erythromycin. In parenthesis, it is indicated the counting media utilized for the different target populations.

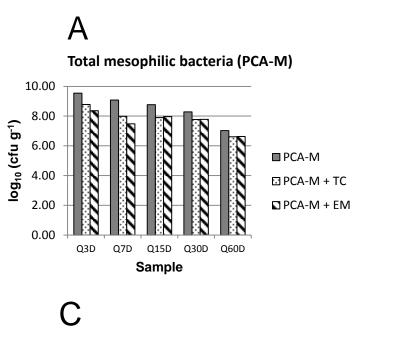
Figure 2.- DGGE profiles of PCR amplicons of the V3 region of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene using as a template DNA from bacteria recovered from PCA-M plates without antibiotics (Panel A) or from PCA-M plates supplemented with tetracycline (Panel B) or erythromycin (Panel C). Lanes 1 through 5, cheese samples at 3, 7, 15, 30 and 60 days of ripening. Bands with a letter code were identified as follows: a, Enterobacteriaceae; b, *Lactococcus lactis*; c, *Lactobacillus plantarum*; d, *Escherichia coli*; e, *Staphylococcus saprophyticus* species-group (*S. sylosus, S. saprophyticus, S. arlettae, S. equorum, S. succinus*) f, *Enterococcus faecalis*; g, *Staphylococcus simulans* species-group (*S. simulans, S. carnosus, S. condimenti, S. piscifermentans*); h, *Enterococcus casseliflavus*; i, *Enterococcus faecium*; j, *Enterococcus spp.;*

Figure 3.- DGGE profiles of PCR amplicons of the V3 region of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene using as a template DNA from bacteria recovered from MRS agar plates without antibiotics (Panel A) or from MRSA plates supplemented with tetracycline (Panel B) or erythromycin (Panel C). Lanes 1 through 5, cheese samples at 3, 7, 15, 30 and 60 days of ripening. Key of the identified bands: a, *Lactobacillus sakei-Lactobacillus curvatus*; b, *Lactobacillus plantarum*; c, *Lactobacillus brevis* ; d,

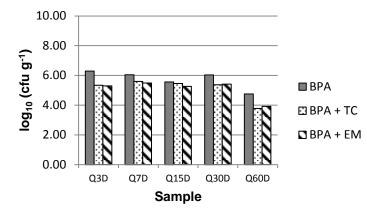
Streptococcus spp.; e, *Lactobacillus* spp.; f, *Lactococcus lactis*; g, *Enterococcus casseliflavus*; h, *Enterococcus faecalis*; i, uncultured bacterium; j, *Escherichia coli*.

Figure 4.- DGGE profiles of PCR amplicons of the V3 region of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene using as a template DNA from bacteria recovered from Baird-Parker (BP) agar plates without antibiotics (Panel A) or from BPA plates supplemented with tetracycline (Panel B) or erythromycin (Panel C). Lanes 1 through 5, cheese samples at 3, 7, 15, 30 and 60 days of ripening. Key of the identified bands: a, *Staphylococcus aureus-Staphylococcus epidermidis* species-group (S. *aureus, S. epidermidis, S. capitis, S. hominis, S. pasteuri*); b, *Enterococcus faecalis;* c, Enterobacteriaceae; d, *Staphylococcus saprophyticus* species-group (S. *xylosus, S. saprophyticus, S. arlettae, S. equorum, S. succinus*); e, *Staphylococcus simulans* species-group (S. *simulans, S. canidateria, S. canidateria, S. canidateria, S. condimenti, S. piscifermentans*); f, *Enterococcus* spp.

Figure 5.- DGGE profiles of PCR amplicons of the V3 region of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene using as a template DNA from bacteria recovered from VRBGA plates without antibiotics (Panel A) or from VRBGA plates supplemented with tetracycline (Panel B) or erythromycin (Panel C). Lanes 1 through 5, cheese samples at 3, 7, 15, 30 and 60 days of ripening. Key of the identified bands: a, Enterobacteriaceae group (*Hafnia* spp., *Citrobacter* spp., *Raoultella* spp.) b, *Escherichia coli*; c, *Enterobacter cloacae*.

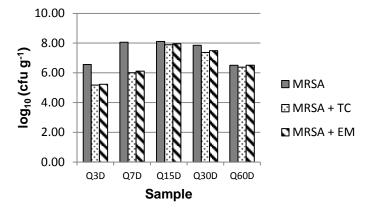


Micrococcci and staphylococci (BPA)



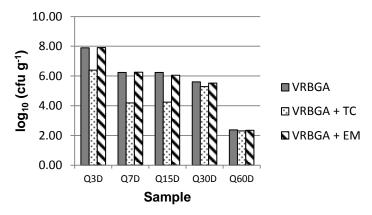
В

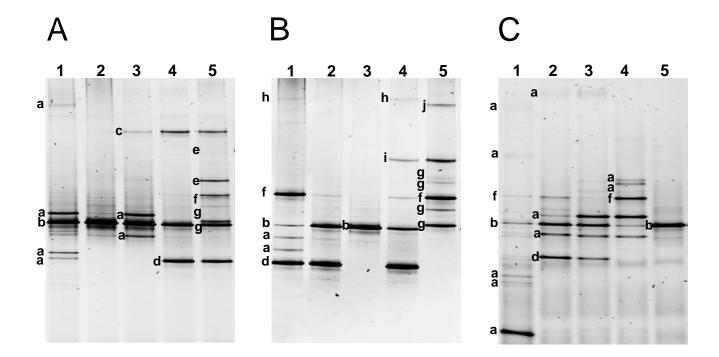
Lactic acid bacteria (MRSA)

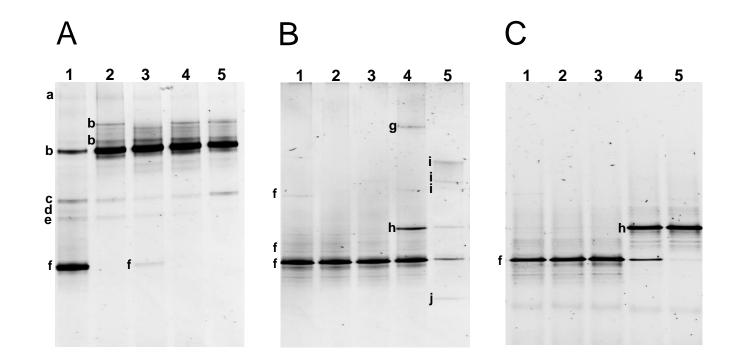


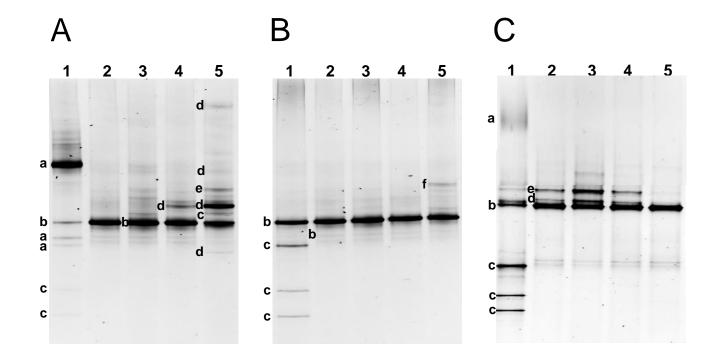
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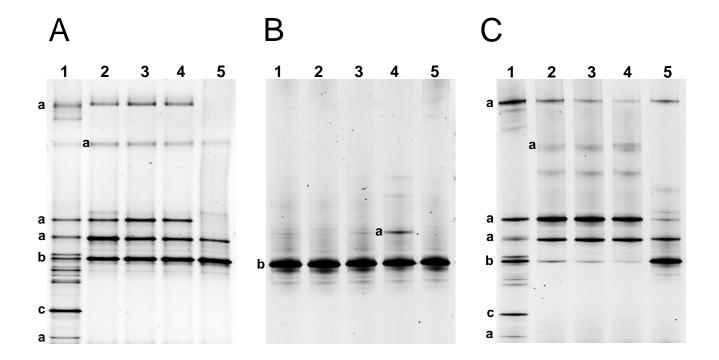
Enterobacteriaceae (VRBGA)











Supplementary Figure 1.- Representative sequences obtained from DGGE bands and their tentative identification by comparison against the databases.

Seq1 DGGE-band a, Figure 2 cheese Enterobacteriaceae (*Hafnia* spp., *Citrobacter* spp., *Raoultella* spp.)

GTACGTCATCACTAAGGTTATTAACCTTAATGCCTTCCTCCTCGCTGAAAGTACTTTACAACCCGAAGGCCTTCTTCATACACGCGGCATGGCTGCATCAG GCTTGCGCCCATTGTGCAATATTCCCCACTGCTGCCTCCCGT

Seq2 DGGE-band b, Figure 2 cheese Lactococcus lactis

Seq3 DGGE-band b, Figure 3 cheese Lactobacillus plantarum

Seq4 DGGE-band b, Figure 5 cheese Escherichia coli

TACGTCATGAGCAAGGTATTAACTTTACTCCCTTCCTCCCCGCTGAAAGTACTTTACAACCCGAAGGCCTTCTTCATACACGCGGCATGGCTGCATCAGGC TTGCGCCCATTGTGCAATATTCCCCACTGGTGCATCCCGT

Seq5 DGGE-band e, Figure 2 cheese *Staphylococcus saprophyticus* species-group

Seq6 DGGE-band b, Figure 4 cheese Enterococcus faecalis

Seq7 DGGE-band e, Figure 4 cheese *Staphylococcus simulans* species-group

Seq8 DGGE-band h, Figure 2 cheese Enterococcus casseliflavus

Seq9 DGGE-band i, Figure 2 cheese Enterococcus faecium

Seq10 DGGE-band j, Figure 2 cheese *Enterococcus* spp.

Seq11 DGGE-band a, Figure 3 cheese *Lactobacillus sakei-curvatus*

Seq12 DGGE-band c, Figure 3 cheese Lactobacillus brevis

Seq13 DGGE-band d, Figure 3 cheese *Streptococcus* spp.

CGTCACAGTGTGAGCTTTCCACTCTCACACTCGTTCTTCTCTTACAACAGAGTTTTACCAACCCAAAACCTTCTTCACTCCCGCGGCGTTGCTCGGTCAGA CTTCCGTCCATTGCCGAAGATTCCCTACTGCTGCCTCCCGT

Seq14 DGGE-band e, Figure 3 cheese *Lactobacillus* spp.

Seq15 DGGE-band i, Figure 3 cheese uncultured bacterium

Seq16 DGGE-band a, Figure 4 cheese Staphylococcus aureus-epidermidis species-group

CTTACACGTTTGTTCTTCCCTAATAACAGAGTTTTACGATCCGAAGACCTTCATCACACGCGGCGTTGCTCCGTCAGGCTTGCGCCCATTGCGGAAGAT TCCCTACTGCTGCCTCCCGT

Seq17 DGGE-band c, Figure 5 cheese Enterobacter cloacae

ACGTCAATCAGCTGCGGTTATTAACCATAACGCCTTCCTCCCCGCTGAAAGTACTTTACAACCCGAAGGCCTTCTTCATACACGCGGCATGGCTGCATCAG GCTTGCGCCCATTGTGCAATATTCCCCACTGCTGCCTCCCGT

DGGE Band	Closest relative(s)	Nucleotide identity (%)	Accession n ^o
Fotal mesophili	c bacteria (PCA-M)		
a	Enterobacteriaceae		
u	Hafnia spp.		KC210872
	Citrobacter spp.	99	KP972219
	Raoultella spp.		KC211307
h	Lactococcus lactis	100	KJ781895
b			
C	Lactobacillus plantarum	100	KJ778116
d	Escherichia coli	99	JF919875
	Staphylococcus saprophyticus species-group	100	
е	S. saprophyticus	100	KR059863
	S. xylosus		KM586983
f	Enterococcus faecalis	99	KP298396
	Staphylococcus simulans species-group		
g	S. simulans	99	KP202162
	S. carnosus		KJ862002
h	Enterococcus casseliflavus	98	JX045722
i	Enterococcus faecium	99	KP275679
i	Enterococcus spp.	98	KM388675
actic acid bac			
	Lactobacillus sakei		LN827925
а	Lactobacillus curvatus	98	KR422333
b	Lactobacillus plantarum	100	KJ778116
c	Lactobacillus previs	97	KP773479
d	Streptococcus spp.	97	GU429575
		97 97	AB894863
e	Lactobacillus spp.	-	
f	Lactococcus lactis	100	KJ781895
g	Enterococcus casseliflavus	98	JX045722
h	Enterococcus faecalis	99	KP298396
1	Uncultured bacterium	99	KJ013312
J	Escherichia coli	100	JF919875
Aicrococci and	staphylococci (BPA)		
	Staphylococcus aureus-epidermidis species group		
а	Staphylococcus aureus	99	KP033216
a	Staphylococcus epidermidis	33	AY699287
	Staphylococcus hominis		KM392087
b	Enterococcus faecalis	99	KP298396
С	Enterobacteriaceae		
	Hafnia spp.	00	KC210872
	Citrobacter spp.	99	KP972219
	11		KC211307
	Raoultella spp.		
	Raoultella spp. Staphylococcus saprophyticus species-group		110211001
d	Staphylococcus saprophyticus species-group	100	
d	Staphylococcus saprophyticus species-group S. saprophyticus	100	KR059863
	Staphylococcus saprophyticus species-group S. saprophyticus S. xylosus	100	
d e	Staphylococcus saprophyticus species-group S. saprophyticus S. xylosus Staphylococcus simulans species-group	100 99	KR059863 KM586983
	Staphylococcus saprophyticus species-group S. saprophyticus S. xylosus Staphylococcus simulans species-group S. simulans		KR059863 KM586983 KP202162
е	Staphylococcus saprophyticus species-group S. saprophyticus S. xylosus Staphylococcus simulans species-group S. simulans S. carnosus	99	KR059863 KM586983 KP202162 KJ862002
e f	Staphylococcus saprophyticus species-group S. saprophyticus S. xylosus Staphylococcus simulans species-group S. simulans S. carnosus Enterococcus spp.		KR059863 KM586983 KP202162
е	Staphylococcus saprophyticus species-group S. saprophyticus S. xylosus Staphylococcus simulans species-group S. simulans S. carnosus Enterococcus spp. ceae (VRBGA)	99	KR059863 KM586983 KP202162 KJ862002
e f	Staphylococcus saprophyticus species-group S. saprophyticus S. xylosus Staphylococcus simulans species-group S. simulans S. carnosus Enterococcus spp. ceae (VRBGA) Enterobacteriaceae	99	KR059863 KM586983 KP202162 KJ862002 KM388675
e f Enterobacteriad	Staphylococcus saprophyticus species-group S. saprophyticus S. xylosus Staphylococcus simulans species-group S. simulans S. carnosus Enterococcus spp. ceae (VRBGA) Enterobacteriaceae Hafnia spp.	99 98	KR059863 KM586983 KP202162 KJ862002 KM388675 KC210872
e f	Staphylococcus saprophyticus species-group S. saprophyticus S. xylosus Staphylococcus simulans species-group S. simulans S. carnosus Enterococcus spp. Ceae (VRBGA) Enterobacteriaceae Hafnia spp. Citrobacter spp.	99	KR059863 KM586983 KP202162 KJ862002 KM388675 KC210872 KP972219
e f Enterobacteriad	Staphylococcus saprophyticus species-group S. saprophyticus S. xylosus Staphylococcus simulans species-group S. simulans S. carnosus Enterococcus spp. ceae (VRBGA) Enterobacteriaceae Hafnia spp.	99 98	KR059863 KM586983 KP202162 KJ862002 KM388675 KC210872
e f Enterobacteriad	Staphylococcus saprophyticus species-group S. saprophyticus S. xylosus Staphylococcus simulans species-group S. simulans S. carnosus Enterococcus spp. Ceae (VRBGA) Enterobacteriaceae Hafnia spp. Citrobacter spp.	99 98	KR059863 KM586983 KP202162 KJ862002 KM388675 KC210872 KP972219

Supplementary Table 1.- BLASTN homology of the nucleotide sequences from representative PCR-DGGE bands and their closest relatives in databases.