

1	Method for culturing Candidatus Ornithobacterium hominis

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## 23 Abstract

*Candidatus* Ornithobacterium hominis has been detected in nasopharyngeal microbiota sequence data from around the world. This report provides the first description of culture conditions for isolating this bacterium. The availability of an easily reproducible culture method is expected to facilitate deeper understanding of the clinical significance of this species.

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## 30 Manuscript text

31 Candidatus Ornithobacterium hominis (OH) is a bacterium that has been detected in 32 nasopharyngeal microbiota sequence data from around the world but has never been cultured 33 (Salter et al., 2019; Salter et al., 2017). This bacterium is of growing interest as polymerase 34 chain reaction (PCR)-based studies found that OH was prevalent and persistent in the 35 nasopharynx of a paediatric population at high-risk of respiratory infection (Salter et al., 36 2019; Salter et al., 2017). Additionally, the closest known relative of OH is Ornithobacterium 37 *rhinotracheale*; a respiratory pathogen of birds (Zahra et al., 2013). These observations prompt research to understand the pathogenic potential and clinical significance of OH. 38 39 Although genomes can be derived from metagenomic data, OH isolates are needed to deepen 40 understanding of the bacterium's role in human respiratory infections. The aim of this study 41 was to determine culture conditions for recovery of OH isolates.

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The study was approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee of the Northern Territory
Department of Health and Menzies School of Health Research (Approval number: 0785).
Culture was performed using biobanked nasopharyngeal swabs that were collected from four
Australian children (age 1-2 years) immediately prior to bronchoscopy for investigation for
chronic suppurative lung disease (Marsh et al., 2016). The swabs had been stored in skim

48	milk-tryptone-glucose-glycerol broth (STGGB) at -80°C for up to 10 years and had two
49	freeze-thaw cycles prior to OH culture. These swabs were selected as all were OH-positive
50	by 16S rRNA gene sequencing at 5-55% relative abundance (Marsh et al., 2016).
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52 Ten microlitres of the STGGB swab media was inoculated onto Tryptic Soy Agar with 5% 53 Sheep Blood (TSA), Horse Blood Columbia agar (HBA), Chocolate agar and Brain Heart 54 Infusion agar (BHI). The plates were incubated aerobically, microaerophillically (Campygen, 55 Oxoid) and anaerobically (Anaerogen, Oxoid) at 35°C for up to five days. Aerobic culture 56 was also performed in the presence of a wet sponge to provide increased humidity (Mayahi et 57 al., 2016). Oxidase testing was done using oxidase test strips (Oxoid). Tributyrin hydrolysis 58 was determined using Catarrhalis discs (Remel). Production of β-lactamase was determined 59 using nitrocefin (Oxoid).

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61 Primary cultures were reviewed for colonies resembling O. rhinotracheale (van Empel and 62 Hafez, 1999). Colonies of oxidase-positive, Gram-negative pleomorphic bacilli were 63 screened using PCR targeting OH-specific regions of the 16S rRNA and toxA genes, as 64 described previously (Salter et al., 2019). PCR-positive isolates were confirmed using genome sequencing. Genomes were assembled de novo using the Microbial Genome 65 66 Assembly Pipeline (MGAP) v1.0 (https://github.com/dsarov/MGAP---Microbial-Genome-67 Assembler-Pipeline) (Chapple et al., 2016). OH identification was confirmed where isolates had >96% average nucleotide identity (Kim et al., 2014; Richter and Rossello-Mora, 2009) 68 69 when compared to draft OH genomes OH-22767 (GenBank accession 70 NZ\_UNSC00000000.1) and OH-22803 (GenBank accession UNSD00000000.1). Both draft genomes were derived from metagenomic analysis of nasopharyngeal swabs from Thai 71 72 children (Salter et al., 2019). Isolate genomes were mapped against the draft OH genomes

vising the Synergised Pipeline for Analysis of Next Generation Sequencing Data in Linux

74 (SPANDx) v3.2.1 (Sarovich and Price, 2014), which wraps Burrows-Wheeler Aligner (Li

and Durbin, 2009), Sequence Alignment/Map (SAM) tools (Li et al., 2009), Picard Tools and

76 Genome Analysis Tool Kit (McKenna et al., 2010). Genomes were aligned using draft OH

genome OH-22803 as the reference with an O. rhinotracheale genome (ORT-UMN 88,

78 GenBank accession CP006828.1) included as an outgroup. Maximum parsimony

79 phylogenomic trees were generated using Phylogenetic Analysis Using Parsimony (PAUP)

80 v4.0a153 (Swofford, 1998) and visualised using FigTree

81 (<u>http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/</u>). Bootstrapping was performed in PAUP with 1000

82 replicates. Lipopolysaccharide comparisons were generated using Easyfig (Sullivan et al.,

83 2011). The OH isolate genomes are available from the Sequence Read Archive (SRA;

84 BioProject number: PRJNA510696).

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OH was successfully cultured from all four swabs. Primary isolation was challenging due to substantial overgrowth by other taxa (Figure 1). Of the conditions tested, optimal primary culture was achieved using TSA incubated in a microaerophilic atmosphere at 35°C for up to five days. OH also grew on HBA, Chocolate agar and BHI; however, isolates were not consistently recovered from these media. Aerobic growth was possible but required additional humidity (e.g. incubating plates in a box containing a wet sponge).

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Under microaerophilic conditions, OH colonies were pleomorphic, glistening, grey and
concave. Colonies ranged in size from 1-3 mm after 48-120 hours incubation. All isolates
were pleomorphic Gram-negative bacilli. Consistent with the phenotype predicted by the
draft genomes (Salter et al., 2019), OH isolates were oxidase-positive, catalase-negative and
all produced β-lactamase. All isolates also hydrolysed tributyrin. Some pure isolates

produced two colony morphologies (Figure 1D). This phenotype is suggestive of small-cell
variants (Zahra et al., 2013) as both colony types were positive by OH 16S rRNA and *toxA*PCR.

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102 The OH isolate genomes had average nucleotide identity of 97.86-98.23% with draft 103 genomes OH-22803 and OH-22767, indicating that they are members of the same species. 104 Phylogenomic analysis demonstrating the high similarity between the Australian isolates and 105 draft OH genomes from Thailand is shown in Figure 2. All isolate genomes contained distinct 106 lipopolysaccharide (LPS) biosynthesis clusters which differed to those of the draft genomes 107 (Figure 3). β-lactamase production was associated with mobile genetic elements that were 108 different in each isolate and occurred at different loci. All isolates also had genes encoding 109 efflux pumps associated with multi-drug resistance.

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111 In summary, following identification of OH in silico, we now report culture conditions for its 112 propagation. Of the conditions tested, optimal growth was achieved using TSA with 113 incubation for up to five days in a microaerophilic atmosphere; conditions which are not part 114 of standard culture used to recover respiratory pathogens from nasopharyngeal swabs (Satzke 115 et al., 2013). Primary isolation was challenging due to extensive overgrowth by other flora. 116 We recommend OH-specific PCRs (Salter et al., 2019) are used to confirm isolate identity. 117 The OH colonial morphology was similar to that reported previously for O. rhinotracheale 118 (van Empel and Hafez, 1999), including growth of multiple colony morphologies suggestive 119 of small-cell variants (Zahra et al., 2013). The significance of this observation is unknown; 120 however, small-cell variants of other bacteria (e.g. Staphylococcus aureus) have been 121 associated with poorer clinical outcomes in patients with respiratory disease (Wolter et al., 122 2013). Association of  $\beta$ -lactamase genes with multiple mobile genetic elements indicates that

- 123 OH β-lactam resistance has been acquired through several independent events. Heterogeneity
- 124 among the LPS cluster is suggestive of multiple capsular types, consistent with observations
- 125 from earlier DNA-based studies (Salter et al., 2019; Salter et al., 2017). The availability of an
- 126 easily reproducible culture method is expected to facilitate deeper understanding of the
- 127 clinical significance of OH.

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185	Figure 1: Ca. Ornithobacterium hominis colony morphology
186	A) Primary isolation of Ca. O. hominis isolate 903C1 on TSA after 120 hours aerobic
187	incubation in the presence of a wet sponge. Arrow indicates a Ca. O. hominis colony.
188	B) Purified <i>Ca</i> . O. hominis isolate 903C1 after 120 hours microaerophillic incubation on
189	TSA. Pure culture of this strain produced a uniform colony size.
190	C) Primary isolation of <i>Ca</i> . O. hominis isolate 902C1 on TSA after 120 hours
191	microaerophillic incubation. Arrow indicates a Ca. O. hominis colony.
192	D) Purified Ca. O. hominis isolate 902C1 after 120 hours microaerophillic incubation on
193	TSA. Pure culture of this isolate producted two colony morphotypes.
194	
195	Figure 2: Phylogenomic analysis of the Ca. Ornithobacterium hominis isolates
196	A midpoint-rooted maximum parsimony tree was constructed based on 764 biallelic single
197	nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) orthologous to the four Australian Ca. O. hominis isolates
198	(900C2, 902C1, 903C1 and 916C1); two previously reported draft Ca. O. hominis genomes
199	from Thailand (OH-22767 and OH-22803); and an O. rhinotracheale outgroup (ORT-UMN

200 88). Bar indicates a distance of 50 SNPs.

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202	Figure 3: Comparison of <i>Ca</i> . Ornithobacterium hominis lipopolysaccharide biosynthesis
203	loci.
204	A tblastx alignment of the lipopolysaccharide biosynthesis clusters in the four Australian OH
205	isolates compared to draft genomes OH-22767 and OH-22803 derived from Thailand(2).
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