Microbiology An ex vivo lung model to study bronchioles infected with Pseudomonas aeruginosa biofilms --Manuscript Draft--

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Abstract:	A key aim in microbiology is to determine the genetic and phenotypic bases of bacterial virulence, persistence and antimicrobial resistance in chronic biofilm infections. This requires tractable, high-throughput models that reflect the physical and chemical environment encountered in specific infection contexts. Such models will increase the predictive power of microbiological experiments and provide platforms for enhanced testing of novel antibacterial or antivirulence therapies. We present an optimised ex vivo model of cystic fibrosis lung infection: ex vivo culture of pig bronchiolar tissue in artificial cystic fibrosis mucus. We focus on the formation of biofilms by Pseudomonas aeruginosa. We show highly repeatable and specific formation of biofilms that resemble clinical biofilms by a commonly-studied lab strain and ten cystic fibrosis isolates of this key opportunistic pathogen.			

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26 Abstract

27 A key aim in microbiology is to determine the genetic and phenotypic bases of bacterial virulence, 28 persistence and antimicrobial resistance in chronic biofilm infections. This requires tractable, high-29 throughput models that reflect the physical and chemical environment encountered in specific 30 infection contexts. Such models will increase the predictive power of microbiological experiments 31 and provide platforms for enhanced testing of novel antibacterial or antivirulence therapies. We 32 present an optimised ex vivo model of cystic fibrosis lung infection: ex vivo culture of pig 33 bronchiolar tissue in artificial cystic fibrosis mucus. We focus on the formation of biofilms by 34 Pseudomonas aeruginosa. We show highly repeatable and specific formation of biofilms that 35 resemble clinical biofilms by a commonly-studied lab strain and ten cystic fibrosis isolates of this 36 key opportunistic pathogen.

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40 Introduction

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42 Chronic lung infections are debilitating, highly antibiotic resistant and often lethal. They affect 43 people with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, ventilator-associated pneumonia, HIV/AIDS 44 and the genetic disorder cystic fibrosis (CF). Chronic lung infections are caused by communities of 45 different microbial genotypes and species (Short et al., 2014), but the formation of bacterial 46 biofilms in the airways is a key factor in producing a persistent and difficult to treat infection. CF 47 lung infections are perhaps the epitome of intractable biofilm infection: they last for decades and 48 the majority of people with CF die from respiratory failure, 50% of them before reaching middle age 49 (Elborn, 2016). Understanding the basic in vivo microbiology of key CF pathogens is a vital step 50 towards designing effective treatment. Much research and clinical effort focuses on the 51 opportunistic bacterial pathogen Pseudomonas aeruginosa, which eventually colonises most 52 people with CF, is a primary target for antimicrobial treatment, and forms extensive biofilm plugs in 53 the patient's bronchioles (Bjarnsholt et al., 2009; Elborn, 2016).

54

55 Various in vitro systems and insect or rodent hosts are used to study P. aeruginosa and to 56 determine the genetic and phenotypic variables that determine virulence and persistence. 57 However, most in vitro experiments use unstructured broth cultures, or grow biofilms that are 58 attached to abiotic surfaces and whose structure is very different from those seen in vivo (Roberts 59 et al.; Bjarnsholt et al., 2013). Insect hosts have limited similarity to humans and it is now clear that rodent tissue chemistry (Benahmed et al., 2014) and immune responses (Seok et al., 2013) differ 60 61 significantly from those of humans. In vivo experiments are also limited in duration (acute or semi-62 chronic) due to restrictions imposed by ethical concerns, cost and host response to disease (Wiles 63 et al., 2006; Hoffmann, 2007; Kukavica-Ibrulj and Levesque, 2008). In general, the environment during chronic infection differs from that encountered in a healthy host (acute infection). Tissue 64 65 damage and disease-specific changes in host phenotype cause physical differences, e.g. 66 increased mucus volume and adhesivity in CF. The chemical environment also differs as different 67 substrates for growth become available: in CF, bacteria use amino acids released by damaged 68 tissues, or from mucus, as carbon sources, and do not experience the iron restriction characteristic

69 of healthy tissue (Tyrrell and Callaghan, 2016). Consequently, gene expression and the roles 70 played by virulence factors differ in chronic vs. acute contexts (Palmer et al., 2005; LaFayette et 71 al., 2015; Turner et al., 2015). Environmental cues also affect antibiotic resistance phenotypes: P. 72 aeruginosa grown in synthetic CF sputum upregulates an antibiotic efflux pump (Tata et al., 2016). 73 The extent of environmental change as an infection progresses from acute to chronic is underlined 74 by the extent to which P. aeruginosa and other pathogens evolve and diversify over the course of 75 CF lung infection. In particular, clones with mutations in genes associated with virulence in acute 76 infection are commonly recovered from chronically-infected patients (Smith et al., 2006; Diaz 77 Caballero et al., 2015; Silva et al., 2016). A general lack of chronicity and realistic tissue chemistry 78 therefore limits the use of *in vitro* and rodent models for investigating pathogen biology, and 79 arguably explains the high failure rate in translating proposed new drugs from animal models to the 80 clinic (McGonigle and Ruggeri, 2014).

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Cheap, high-throughput models of lung biofilm that carefully recapitulate the physical and chemical environment encountered in chronic CF infection are not well represented in the microbiologist's toolkit. Such models would drastically increase the level of biological realism achievable in the laboratory and so open a new window to help us study the *in vivo* biofilm. They could be used to reveal novel targets for clinical intervention, to test promising new anti-biofilm or anti-bacterial compounds, or for more predictive diagnostic tests of antibiotic resistance.

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89 Inspired by previously published work (Williams and Gallagher, 1978; Nunes et al., 2010), we 90 recently developed a cheap, high-throughput protocol (Harrison et al., 2014) for infecting ex vivo 91 pig lung tissue (EVPL) with P. aeruginosa and culturing these model infections in conditions that 92 mimic the chemistry of chronically-infected CF lung mucus (artificial sputum medium (Palmer et al., 93 2007)). Pigs have more similar lung structure, immunology and chemistry to humans than do mice 94 (Meurens et al., 2012; Benahmed et al., 2014) and lung tissue is available as a by-product from the 95 meat industry, so the model poses no ethical concerns. The model is cheap and allows for high 96 levels of replication: several dozen individual pieces of tissue can be dissected from each pair of

97 lungs. Because the lungs come from animals certified fit for human consumption, the model also98 poses no obvious biological safety risks.

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100 We showed that EVPL could be used to compare the growth, pathology and virulence of different 101 genotypes of P. aeruginosa using cell counts, microscopy and quantitative chemical or reporter-102 based assays for various virulence factors (quorum sensing signals, proteases, siderophores, 103 pyocyanin). Reproducibility between tissue taken from independent lungs was high (Harrison et al., 104 2014). We found that, while communication via quorum sensing is required for *P. aeruginosa* 105 growth and virulence in acute infection models, this behaviour appears to be dispensable in EVPL 106 (Harrison et al., 2014). This shows the importance of recognising and modelling environmental and 107 ecological differences in acute vs. chronic contexts.

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Our previous work used sections of alveolar lung tissue, corresponding to the location infection in a very late, pre-terminal stage of CF. In reality, long-term, prophylactic use of antibiotics results in *P*. *aeruginosa* biofilm remaining restricted to the bronchioles for most of the course of chronic infection (Bjarnsholt et al., 2009). We have therefore developed a version of our model that uses small sections of pig bronchiole to better represent *P. aeruginosa* biofilm during the long periods of relatively quiescent chronic infection that characterise CF.

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- 117 Methods
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- 119 Bacterial strains
- 120 PAO1 and PA14 were used as examples of standard laboratory strains of *P. aeruginosa*. As
- 121 exemplar chronic CF isolates, we selected ten clones taken from a single CF sputum sample that
- 122 had previously been subjected to extensive phenotypic and genomic analysis in our laboratory and
- 123 which belong to the Liverpool Epidemic Strain lineage (Darch et al., 2015).
- 124
- 125 Artificial sputum medium and culture conditions

126 Artificial sputum medium was prepared following the recipe of Palmer et al. (2007), with the 127 modification that we did not add glucose to the medium. Preliminary work suggested that glucose 128 facilitated growth of any resident bacteria left on the lung tissue, and did not affect the growth of P. 129 aeruginosa when lung tissue was present. All media used in this work were supplemented with 50 130 µg/ml ampicillin to further minimize the growth of any resident bacteria present in the lung tissue. 131 (Preliminary work found that ampicillin did not significantly affect P. aeruginosa growth, but we 132 would advise that any effect of ampicillin on bacterial colonisation or gene expression is explicitly 133 tested for in future experiments where this may influence the results).

134

135 Lung dissection & infection

136 Pig lungs were obtained from a local butcher (JT Beedham & Sons, Nottingham). Lungs came 137 from the butcher's own herd of Duroc x Pietrain pigs, were collected as soon as possible after they 138 arrived in the shop from the abattoir and were used immediately on arrival in the laboratory. Lungs 139 were transported in a chilled coolbox to the University of Nottingham and dissected in a room not 140 used for microbiological work. Standard sterile technique was observed at all times (work 141 conducted under a Bunsen burner, dissection tools pre-sterilised by autoclaving and re-sterilised 142 as necessary by dipping in ethanol and flaming). The ventral surface of the pleura was briefly (<1 143 s) seared with a hot pallet knife to kill surface contaminants from the abattoir or butcher's shop. 144 This also renders the pleura easier to cut. A mounted razor blade was used to cut into the tissue 145 along the length of the first 5-10 cm of the right or left main bronchus, just deep enough to expose 146 the cartilage of the bronchus. The exact length available varies between lungs depending on the 147 size and how rapidly the bronchus branches; we recommend working with bronchi and bronchioles 148 of 1-3 cm in diameter. A mounted razor blade was then used to make a transverse cut across the 149 top of the bronchus to separate it from the trachea. By holding this free end, it is possible to use 150 the razor blade to gently separate a length of bronchus from the surrounding alveolar tissue. 151 Approx. 5 cm long sections of bronchus/bronchiole were removed in this way, and stripped of most 152 remaining attached alveolar tissue using mounted razor blades. These sections were washed 153 twice with a 1:1 mix of RPMI 1640 and Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium (DMEM) (Sigma-154 Aldrich). Dissection scissors were used to trim away any remaining alveolar or connective tissue 155 on the surface of the bronchioles (this is softened and made easier to remove by washing). 156 Scissors were then used to cut the washed bronchioles into longitudinal strips of approx. 5 mm 157 width, and then to cut approx. 5 mm square sections from these strips. Any remaining excess 158 alveolar or connective tissue was trimmed away with scissors as the bronchioles were being 159 sectioned. Bronchiolar tissue sections were then washed once with a 1:1 mix of RPMI 1640 and 160 DMEM, and once with ASM. Sections were transferred individual to the wells of 24-well tissue 161 culture plate: each well contained a soft pad of 400 µl ASM supplemented with 0.8% w/v agarose. 162 500 µl liquid ASM was added to each well. For imaging experiments only, smaller bronchioles (5 163 mm – 1 cm diameter) were also dissected and whole cross-sections approx. 5 mm long were cut 164 with a mounted razor blade.

To inoculate bronchiolar sections with bacteria, a sterile hypodermic needle (29 or 30G) was lightly touched to the surface of a *P. aeruginosa* colony grown on an LB agar plate and then used to prick the bronchiolar tissue. For mock-infection controls, tissue was pricked with a sterile needle. We found that needles mounted on 1 ml insulin syringes were easy to handle safely and accurately. Tissue was incubated at 37°C on a rocking platform for up to 4 days.

After incubation, tissue was rinsed in 1 ml phosphate buffered saline to remove loosely adhering cells. Tissue sections intended for microscopy were preserved in formalin, sectioned and stained with Gram stain or haematoxylin and eosin (H&E). Microscopy was conducted with a Nikon Eclipse 50i with Digital Sight DS-U3 camera. Tissue sections used to assay total bacterial numbers were homogenised individually in 500 µl phosphate-buffered saline in metal bead tubes (Cambio) using a Precellys24 homogenizer. Homogenates were serially diluted and aliquots plated on LB agar to obtain single colonies.

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178 Bead biofilm assay

For each bacterial clone to be investigated, a sweep of colonies was taken from an LB agar plate, inoculated into 3ml ASM and cultured overnight at 37°C on an orbital shaker. Cultures were diluted to an OD₆₀₀ of 0.1 in ASM and three replica 2ml aliquots transferred to 5 ml plastic universal tubes. A 9x6 mm plastic bead (pony beads from www.mailorder-beads.co.uk) was added to each tube and cultures incubated for 24 hours at 37°C on an orbital shaker at 200 rpm. Biofilms were 184 collected by retrieving the beads from the tubes, gently washing three times in 10 ml phosphate 185 buffered saline, transferring to 10 ml fresh phosphate buffered saline and sonicating in a bath 186 sonicator for 10 minutes. Recovered biofilm populations were diluted and plated on LB agar to 187 count colonies.

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190 Results & Discussion

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192 Appearance of mock-infected and biofilm-colonised tissue

193 Mock-infected bronchiolar EVPL retains normal histopathology for seven days (Fig. 1a). We used a 194 sterile hypodermic needle to transfer colony-grown cells of a standard used lab strain of P. 195 aeruginosa, PAO1, to EVPL and observed that after four days' incubation in artificial sputum 196 medium at 37°C, this strain formed dense, mucoid biofilms that are highly reminiscent of the sticky 197 plugs that occlude CF patients' bronchioles (Fig. 1b, c). Microscopy (Fig. 1c) showed that the four 198 day old biofilm had numerous empty voids, giving it a spongy appearance: this is similar to images 199 of *P. aeruginosa* biofilm in some samples of expectorated CF sputum (Fig. 1d in Bjarnsholt et al., 200 2009) and in explanted CF lungs (Fig. 3 in Kragh et al., 2014), and of mucus plugs in the 201 bronchioles of late-stage CF patients (Fig. 8 in Henderson et al., 2014). We noted that the 202 bronchiolar tissue largely retained its integrity even when covered in large amounts of biofilm: the 203 tissue was not dissolved or macerated by P. aeruginosa exoproducts.

204

205 We then tested how clinical isolates of *P. aeruginosa*, that have adapted to a chronic lifestyle in CF 206 lungs over many generations, performed in our model. We selected ten genetically and 207 phenotypically diverse *P. aeruginosa* clones that were previously isolated in our lab from a single 208 CF sputum sample (Darch et al., 2015) and cultured them in EVPL as described above. In parallel, 209 we also cultured PAO1 and a second commonly-used lab strain, PA14. Three replica sections of 210 tissue were inoculated for each strain (or used for the uninoculated control) and the whole 211 experiment was replicated twice using two different lungs obtained on different days. As can be 212 seen in the example photographs from lung A in Fig. 2, the CF isolates formed biofilm on 213 bronchiolar tissue more rapidly and more specifically than the lab isolates. PA14 did not show 214 visible growth either on the tissue or in the surrounding ASM at 19 hours post-inoculation, by which 215 which time cultures of PAO1 and the CF isolates showed visible bacterial growth. However, while 216 PAO1 had grown to high density in the liquid ASM surrounding the tissue, it did not at this early 217 stage show any noticeable growth on the tissue itself. In contrast, by 19 hours post-inoculation, the 218 CF isolates had formed frond-like aggregates on and connected to the cubes of tissue, without 219 noticeable turbidity of the surrounding liquid medium. These observations are consistent with 220 EVPL providing a permissive and therefore realistic environment for these lung-adapted clones. 221 Fig. S1 shows replica bronchiolar biofilms of each of the ten CF isolates and two lab strains at 4 222 days post-inoculation in lung B; comparable results were obtained in both lungs used. As with 223 PAO1, the square of tissue retained its general shape and size, it was not destroyed by the 224 colonising bacteria.

225

226 Consistency of biofilm formation on bronchiolar EVPL versus a standard in vitro assay

227 It is important to determine how reproducible experimental results are likely to be in any 228 experimental model: more variable models will require greater sample sizes to measure microbial 229 traits of interest, or to perform experiments with adequate statistical power to reject the null 230 hypothesis. For example, if we want to test the null hypothesis that there is no difference in biofilm 231 forming ability between different genotypes, it would be helpful to know the proportion of variation 232 in biofilm formation that is due to differences among clones, as opposed to differences between 233 replica populations of the same clone cultured on different pieces of tissue. In statistical language 234 this measure of reproducibility is called the intraclass correlation coefficient – or, more informally, 235 "repeatability" - and is easily calculated from the results of a one-way analysis of variance 236 (ANOVA) (Lessells and Boag, 1987). Therefore, we conducted an experiment with a deliberately 237 small sample size to compare the repeatability of biofilm formation by ten clinical isolates of P. 238 aeruginosa on bronchiolar EVPL and in an attachment assay using plastic beads that has become 239 a standard in vitro assay for biofilm formation (Poltak and Cooper, 2011). We sought to determine 240 how reproducibly each clone formed biofilm on different pieces of lung tissue, and to see how this 241 level of reproducibility compared with that observed in the bead assay.

242

243 Each of the ten CF isolates previously used was cultured in triplicate in EVPL (tissue from a single 244 lung) and in a well-establised bead biofilm assay. As can be seen from the error bars in Fig. 3, 245 there was more within-clone variation in the bead assay than in the EVPL model. Consequently, 246 the bacterial density recovered from EVPL showed higher repeatability (0.63 vs. 0.24). This 247 allowed ANOVA to identify inter-clone differences in biofilm formation (F_{2,20}=6.1, p<0.001) despite 248 the small sample size; these were not apparent in the bead assay ($F_{2,20}=2.0$, p=0.104) (Table 1). 249 The comparative data in Fig. 3 also demonstrate the impressive thickness of the biofilm formed on 250 a relatively small surface area of bronchiolar EVPL (approx. 50 mm², compared with approx. 180 251 mm^2 for a bead).

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253 Future value of EVPL as a laboratory model of biofilm infection

254 In conclusion, we present a model for CF biofilm infection that facilitates cheap, high-throughput 255 screening of *P. aeruginosa* clones in an environment which more closely mimics the structure and 256 chemistry of chronically-infected lungs. In our previous work with alveolar sections of EVPL, we 257 showed that a range of bacterial virulence factors can be quantified directly from infected tissue 258 using luminescent reporter constructs and a range of standard fluorescence-based or colorimetric 259 assays. All of these assays will also be possible with in situ populations grown on bronchiolar 260 sections, or homogenates thereof. In the future, this model will be a valuable tool in increasing our 261 understanding of the basic microbiology of biofilm infection and its clinical consequences. We have 262 optimised this model for the study of CF, but with a few modifications such as context-specific 263 culture media, the model could be transferrable to the study of a range of lung infection contexts.

264

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270

271 Abbreviations

- 272 EVPL: ex vivo pig lung
- 273

274 Figure Legends

Figure 1. (a) Uninfected bronchiolar EVPL retains structure after 7 days' culture at 37°C in ASM (H&E stained cross-section of a small bronchiole tissue). (b) *P. aeruginosa* strain PAO1 forms extensive mucoid biofilm on squares of bronchiolar tissue by four days post-inoculation. The green pigmentation is typical of *P. aeruginosa* and is a mixture of the exoproducts pyoverdine and pyocyanin; note how the coating of bacteria drips from the tissue and sticks to the plastic culture plate as the section of bronchiole is lifted out of the well. (c) Microscopy confirms that the biofilms in (b) are a mass of Gram-negative (pink) rods.

282 Figure 2. (a) EVPL in situ in ASM at 19 hours post-inoculation. Uninfected bronchiolar tissue 283 retains its normal appearance: a pinkish-white square with no noticeable degradation, surrounded 284 by clear ASM. The lab strain PA14 does not show visible growth either on the tissue or in the 285 surrounding ASM at this early stage; PAO1, in contrast, has grown extensively in the liquid ASM 286 surrounding the tissue (green-yellow pigmentation due to production of pyoverdine) but does not 287 yet show any noticeable growth on the tissue itself - note pinkish-white square of tissue sitting in 288 the liquid bacterial culture. In contrast, CF isolates of P. aeruginosa (e.g. SED-41, SED-43) show 289 growth as frond-like aggregates on and connected to the cubes of tissue, very different from the 290 dense planktonic growth of PAO1. (b) By 4 days post-inoculation, CF isolates of P. aeruginosa 291 have grown to high density on EVPL. The image shows three replica infections of SED-41 (top 292 row) and SED-43 (bottom row) after washing the tissue with phosphate-buffered saline to remove 293 non-adhering cells: a coating of sticky P. aeruginosa, with blue-green pigmentation (pyoverdine 294 and pyocyanin), is left behind. (c) These biofilms are noticeably mucoid (e.g. SED-41).

Figure 3 Biofilm mass (colony forming units, CFU) recovered from plastic beads (grey bars) and from EVPL (white bars). **Figure S1.** Replica biofilms formed by ten CF sputum isolates and two lab strains, shown at 4 days post-inoculation after washing in saline to remove loosely-adhering cells. Tissue is pictured in a standard 24-well culture plate; as two plates were required to grow three replicates of each clone, three replica uninoculated sections were placed in each plate. Nomenclature for the CF isolates is the same as in the first published article describing the phenotypic and genetic diversity of these isolates (Darch et al., 2015)).

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304 Tables

305 Table 1 Analysis of Variance and repeatability (*r*) of biofilm mass for ten clinical *P. aeruginosa*306 isolates on (a) beads and (b) bronchiolar EVPL. Note that data for one replicate population of one
307 clone in the bead assay was lost.

308

(a) Beads

	d.f. Sur	n of Squares	Mean Square	F	р	r
Clone	9	1.35E+11	1.50E+10	1.957	0.104	0.24
Residuals	19	1.46E+11	7.66E+09			

(b) EVPL

	d.f. Su	m of Squares	Mean Square	F	р	r
Clone	9	2.53E+18	2.81E+17	6.131	< 0.001	0.63
Residuals	20	9.16E+17	4.58E+16			

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Figure S1. Replica biofilms formed by ten CF sputum isolates and two lab strains, shown at 4 days post-inoculation after washing in saline to remove loosely-adhering cells. Tissue is pictured in a standard 24-well culture plate; as two plates were required to grow three replicates of each clone, three replica uninoculated sections were placed in each plate. Nomenclature for the CF isolates is the same as in the first published article describing the phenotypic and genetic diversity of these isolates (Darch et al., 2015).