

1 Intracellular and Extracellular Antibiotic Resistance Genes in
2 Airborne PM_{2.5} for Respiratory Exposure in Urban Areas

3

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5

6 **ABSTRACT:** The current research paradigm for the environmental dissemination of
7 antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs) focuses on those harbored within bacteria (*i.e.*, the
8 intracellular fraction). Understanding both intracellular and extracellular ARGs has
9 particular implications for the flux and fate of ARGs airborne via fine particulate matter
10 (PM_{2.5}) from the ambient atmosphere to the human airway. In this study, we developed
11 an operationally defined protocol for urban PM_{2.5} to quantify the abundance of ARGs
12 occurring in free and phage-associated DNA, in addition to their counterparts
13 commonly analyzed within bacterial cells. The results demonstrated that the
14 extracellular fraction comprises a significant proportion of total ARGs in PM_{2.5}, with
15 subtype-specific dominance in either free or phage-associated DNA. A comparison
16 between temperate and subtropical cities revealed geographical disparities of PM_{2.5}-
17 associated intracellular and extracellular ARGs due to the influences of regional
18 meteorological factors and oxidative gases. Considering the potential for horizontal
19 gene transfers and the efficiency of respiratory deposition, the extracellular fraction
20 could represent >60% of the modeled inhalational intake of most of the analyzed ARGs
21 in some cities. The present study highlights the importance of the dynamics of ARGs
22 in airborne PM_{2.5} and their health implications across climate zones and pollution

23 gradients.

24

25 **INTRODUCTION**

26 Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) poses a huge challenge to the health of populations
27 around the world. It is estimated that if not effectively decelerated, the continued rise
28 of drug-resistant infections will claim 10 million lives a year and cost a cumulative 100
29 trillion USD in economic output by 2050.¹ The environment alone has been recognized
30 as the single largest reservoir of antibiotic resistance genes (ARGs), the genetic entities
31 that confer AMR.²⁻⁷ There have been a multitude of studies on the environmental
32 dissemination of ARGs in both natural environments^{2,3} and engineered ecosystems,^{4,5}
33 with implications for their consequent contribution to human exposure.^{6,7} Airborne
34 bacteria, which are an integral part of airborne fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}), are an
35 important pathway for the dissemination of ARGs.⁸ PM_{2.5} can penetrate deep into the
36 alveolar region of human lungs; therefore, its presence has strong implications for
37 human exposure to environmentally disseminated ARGs.

38

39 The current DNA extraction protocol for studying ARGs in environmental matrices,
40 including PM_{2.5}, often only involves collecting intracellular (bacteria-associated) ARGs
41 on 0.2-µm filters, while leaving out extracellular fractions (free and phage-associated
42 ARGs). Neglect of the extracellular fractions may result in the overlooking of
43 horizontal gene transfer (HGT) processes other than that of conjugation via cell-to-cell
44 contact, such as transformation via the direct uptake of extracellular free DNA and

45 transduction via bacteriophage.^{9,10} Recent reports on the prevalence of free and phage-
46 associated ARGs in various matrices of surface environments hint at the significance
47 of these fractions, with potential for transformation and transduction in the
48 environmental transmission of AMR.^{11,12} The occurrence and implications of
49 extracellular ARGs in airborne PM_{2.5} have yet to be explored.

50

51 Airborne bacterial communities are influenced by a range of meteorological factors and
52 gaseous and particulate constituents.^{13,14} It is reasonable to consider that ARG fractions
53 in airborne PM_{2.5} are governed by atmospheric conditions. Oxidative gases (*i.e.*, O₃,
54 NO_x) are able to degrade proteins/polypeptides to form amino acids,¹⁵⁻¹⁷ and induce
55 bacterial lysis,^{18,19} leading to the release of free DNA to the extracellular environment.
56 Free ARGs may thus be influenced by oxidative gases and ultraviolet radiation, which
57 can act in a way similar to disinfection techniques.^{20,21} Phage-associated ARGs are
58 generated in metabolically active hosts during a viral infection, and assemble to transfer
59 ARGs among hosts.²² Relative humidity (RH) is an important factor in modulating the
60 survival/infectivity of viruses,^{23,24} which may have implications for phage-associated
61 ARGs. However, the mechanisms for the “partitioning” of three ARG fractions in a
62 natural or engineered environment would differ from one another, especially for the
63 more complex atmospheric dynamics and prevailing meteorology in the air. The effects
64 of atmospheric influencing factors on intracellular and extracellular fractions of ARGs
65 in airborne PM_{2.5} warrant investigations using geographically comparative sites with
66 contrasting atmospheric conditions.

67

68 In this study, we first developed a protocol to extract bacteria-associated, free, and
69 phage-associated DNA in an operationally defined manner for airborne PM_{2.5} samples.
70 Focusing on the temperate inland city of Beijing in northern China and the subtropical
71 coastal cities of Hangzhou in eastern China and Hong Kong in southern China, we then
72 investigated the seasonal evolution and geographical differentiation of the intracellular
73 and extracellular profiles of selected ARGs in PM_{2.5} in relation to meteorological
74 parameters and PM and gas components. We further estimated the city-specific daily
75 inhalational intake of PM_{2.5}-associated intracellular and extracellular ARGs, taking into
76 consideration their HGT potential and respiratory deposition efficiency. Overall, our
77 aim was to gain an enhanced understanding of the fate and health implications of total
78 ARGs in airborne PM_{2.5} in relation to large urban populations.

79

80 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

81 **PM_{2.5} Sampling**

82 PM_{2.5} samples were collected at an urban site in Beijing, Hangzhou, and Hong Kong
83 (**Table S1 of SI**) with high-volume (1000 L min⁻¹) samplers (TH-1000C II, Wuhan
84 Tianhong Instruments Co., Ltd.), using quartz microfiber filters (QMA, 203 mm × 254
85 mm, Whatman 1851-65; prebaked at 400 °C for 4 h). Samples accumulated on a 24 h
86 basis (from 8:00 a.m. to 8:00 a.m.) were collected from March 2016 to May 2017 in
87 Beijing, and from December 2016 to November 2017 in Hangzhou and Hong Kong,
88 respectively, and were stored at -80 °C before the extraction of DNA. Our control

89 experiments verified that the freezing and subsequent thawing of the samples did not
90 contribute significantly to lysis of the cells and the release of free DNA (Figure S1 of
91 SI). A field blank filter was placed in an air sampler accessory box before, during, and
92 at the end of the sampling campaign. Data on meteorological parameters and trace gas
93 concentrations were accessed from the closest weather station (Table S2).

94

95 **DNA Extraction**

96 For Beijing and Hangzhou, where sample amounts were limited, a quarter of each
97 individual quartz filter was cut and four individual subsamples within the same month
98 were pooled for DNA extraction and subsequent analysis. For Hong Kong, each full-
99 size filter sample was used, with a total of six individual samples in each season. In the
100 pretreatment process, the samples were sonicated with sterilized 1× phosphate-buffered
101 saline (PBS).^{6,25} The particulates suspended in a PBS buffer were then filtered through
102 a 0.2 μm PES membrane disc filter (47 mm, Pall). The disc filters were then used to
103 extract bacteria-associated DNA, while the filtrates were collected to extract free and
104 phage-associated DNA. Our control experiments verified that the sonication of the
105 samples did not contribute significantly to lysis of the cells and the release of free DNA
106 (Figure S1).

107

108 Bacteria-associated DNA were extracted from the disc filters using methods that have
109 been described in previous studies.^{6,25} The procedures for the extraction of extracellular
110 DNA and quality control were developed based on previous studies^{11,26-30} with some

111 modifications (Figure 1). Please see the detailed methods in Section 1 of SI.

112

113 **Real-time Quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction**

114 Several selected ARGs (*bla*_{TEM-1}, *ermB*, *lnuA*, *qnrS*, *sul1*, *tetA*, *tetM*, and *tetW*) and
115 MGEs (*intI1*, *tnpA-02*, and *tnpA-04*), as well as the 16S rRNA gene, were quantified
116 on a StepOnePlus Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems, CA, USA). The 16S
117 rRNA gene is an indicator of total bacterial abundance. The selected ARGs are
118 associated with six major groups of antibiotics commonly used in clinical and
119 agricultural settings. Details of the primer sets, thermocycling protocols, standard
120 constructions, quality-control procedures, and MIQE information³¹ are provided in the
121 Supporting Information (Section S2 and Table S4) and Appendix I.

122

123 **Statistical Analysis**

124 A correlation analysis between intracellular/extracellular genes and environmental
125 parameters (meteorological factors and trace gaseous pollutants) was performed using
126 SPSS (IBM, USA). A variation partitioning analysis was performed using RStudio
127 (Package “vegan”).

128

129 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

130 **Extracellular Fractions as Significant Contributions of Total ARGs in Ambient**

131 **PM_{2.5}** The quantitation of the absolute abundance of targeted ARGs revealed gene-

132 specific dominance in intracellular and extracellular DNA (Figures 2a and S2; Tables

133 S5-S7). For example, *sul1* was dominant in intracellular fractions, accounting for >60%
134 of the total number of copies in three cities. *qnrS* and *ermB* occurred more frequently
135 in the extracellular free and phage-associated DNA fractions, respectively, in Beijing
136 and Hong Kong. With this fraction taken into account, the total abundance of *qnrS* and
137 *ermB* was generally consistent across seasons. Neglecting the extracellular fractions
138 would result in an underestimation of the atmospheric occurrence of ARGs and an
139 overestimation of their seasonal variability, thus leading to a biased assessment of
140 inhalation exposure. The prevalence of extracellular ARGs in the breathing zone of the
141 ambient atmosphere may also have implications for the multi-pathway HGT of ARGs
142 in interaction with bacterial communities in human respiratory tract upon inhalation.

143

144 Compared to surface environmental matrices,^{11,31-36} ambient PM_{2.5} is where
145 extracellular ARGs can be particularly enriched with high relative abundance (Figure
146 S3). By contrast, the relative abundance of intracellular ARGs is generally consistent
147 from surface environments to airborne PM_{2.5}. The comparison suggests that secondary
148 processes play a role in the generation of extracellular ARGs in the atmosphere, which
149 cannot be explained merely by the preservation of primary emission sources in surface
150 environments. Evidence of secondary processes in the atmosphere to degrade
151 proteins/polypeptides and form amino acids has been found in many previous studies,<sup>15-
152 17</sup> suggesting that atmospheric conditions may favor the lysis of bacteria^{18,19} and hence
153 the generation of extracellular ARGs. Interestingly, while the absolute abundance of
154 intracellular 16S rRNA genes is generally higher than that of its extracellular

155 counterpart by up to four orders of magnitude (Figure S4), the absolute abundance of
156 intracellular and extracellular ARGs typically differ only by less than two orders of
157 magnitude (Figure S5). This contrast may be attributable to the relative distribution of
158 ARGs in plasmids and bacterial genomes. Previous studies have suggested that
159 chromosomal DNA (*e.g.*, the 16S rRNA gene), degrades more rapidly than the plasmid
160 DNA that harbors the ARGs.^{32,36} Hence, the persistence of free ARGs located on
161 plasmids in PM_{2.5} is expected, and can be confirmed by controlled environmental
162 chamber studies. While normalization of the abundance of ARGs to that of the 16S
163 rRNA gene is a common practice, we acknowledge its limitation as different bacteria
164 species contain varying copies. A monocopy candidate marker (*e.g.*, *rpoB*)³⁷ needs to
165 be validated to this purpose.

166

167 **Geographical Disparities in the Intracellular-Extracellular Partitioning of the 16S** 168 **rRNA Gene and ARGs**

169 The total abundance of 16S rRNA genes varied across seasons in Beijing and Hong
170 Kong, in contrast to its seasonal consistency in Hangzhou (Figure 2a). In Beijing, there
171 was a wintertime decline in the abundance of 16S rRNA genes by two to three orders
172 of magnitude as compared to other seasons. In Hong Kong, a drop in the abundance of
173 16S rRNA genes by up to one order of magnitude occurred in warm seasons (spring
174 and summer) as compared to cooler season (winter). These trends were also reflected
175 in a drastic change in the structure of the bacterial community in wintertime in Beijing,
176 a gradual shift from spring to winter in Hong Kong, and seasonal consistency in

177 Hangzhou (Figure S6). While there was a lower total abundance of 16S rRNA genes in
178 Hong Kong than in other two cities by two orders of magnitude, a much higher free
179 fraction was observed in Hong Kong, especially in spring and summer when it
180 accounted for approximately 50% of the total abundance of 16S rRNA genes. In Beijing
181 and Hangzhou, the free fraction of the 16S rRNA gene was generally negligible (<5%
182 across seasons). Such a contrast highlights differences in the life and death of bacteria
183 in the atmosphere across geographic locations.

184

185 Clear differences were observed among the three cities in the distribution of ARGs in
186 intracellular and extracellular fractions. In Hangzhou, most of the studied ARGs were
187 bacteria-associated, with a minor contribution from extracellular fractions (<10% in
188 general for free ARGs and negligible for phage-associated ARGs). There was seasonal
189 consistency in the absolute abundance of the studied ARGs, which again agreed with
190 the seasonally consistent structure of the bacterial community (Figure S6). In contrast,
191 extracellular fractions occurred frequently in Beijing and Hong Kong. Free fractions
192 dominated extracellular ARGs in Beijing and both free and phage-associated fractions
193 contributed significantly in Hong Kong. On average, the percentage of free *qnrS* in
194 Beijing and free *bla*_{TEM-1} in Hong Kong (over 40% on average across seasons in both
195 cities) was much higher than that in Hangzhou (<10% across seasons). Of all analyzed
196 ARGs, *ermB* in winter in Beijing and *qnrS* and *tetW* in summer in Hong Kong occurred
197 with the highest abundance in the phage-associated fraction, which was consistent with
198 the results in previous studies on feces and sludge,^{26,29} highlighting the role of

199 bacteriophages in the airborne dissemination of ARGs.

200

201 A variation partitioning analysis indicated differential influences from meteorological
202 factors and oxidative gases on the city-specific profiles of intracellular and extracellular
203 16S rRNA genes and ARGs (Figure 2b and Tables S8-S14). The two categories of
204 environmental factors explained >60% of the total variance in the intracellular-
205 extracellular partitioning of the 16S rRNA gene and ARGs in the three studied cities.
206 Meteorological factors exhibited stronger independent influences than oxidative
207 gaseous components. While the fraction explained solely by meteorological factors
208 increased from northern to southern cities (Beijing: 25.5%; Hangzhou: 42.2%; Hong
209 Kong: 45.3%), the interactive effects of meteorological factors and oxidative gaseous
210 components decreased (Beijing: 51.4%; Hangzhou: 34.7%; Hong Kong: 13.3%).

211

212 In Beijing, temperature, RH, and O₃ were shown to be predominant factors in
213 association with intracellular-extracellular ARG ratios (Tables S12-S14). The strong
214 interactive effects of these factors may reflect the interdependence between the
215 prevailing meteorology and photochemical pollution, which may jointly drive the
216 seasonal succession of bacteria-associated, free, and phage-associated ARGs. In
217 Hangzhou, wind speed and rainfall in interaction with O₃ were found to be associated
218 with the dominance of bacteria-associated 16S rRNA genes and ARGs (Table S12).
219 Hong Kong had a lower level of O₃ and higher ranges of meteorological parameters
220 (*e.g.*, temperature, UV radiation, RH, and wind speed) compared to other two cities. As

221 such, the set of meteorological factors may dictate the intracellular-extracellular
222 partitioning of the 16S rRNA gene and ARGs. The above statistical modeling results
223 hint at the differential influences of meteorological factors and oxidative gases on city-
224 specific dynamics of bacteria and ARGs in airborne PM_{2.5}. Large-scale field studies in
225 combination with controlled laboratory experiments are needed to decipher the
226 geographically dependent interactive effects of prevailing meteorology and oxidative
227 gases on the dynamics of airborne intracellular and extracellular ARGs.

228

229 **Modeled Inhalational Intake of Transferable ARG Fractions**

230 The statistical correlation between the total free or phage-associated ARGs and the total
231 MGEs, *intI1*, *tnpA-02*, and *tnpA-04*, was generally maintained at a 1:1 ratio, which is
232 similar to the ratio for bacteria-associated ARGs in this study (Figure S7) and other
233 studies.^{6,7,38} Previous studies demonstrated that MGEs, *e.g.*, *intI1*, are involved in HGT
234 by carrying ARGs for mobilization under environmental stressors.^{30,39,40} The co-
235 existence of ARGs and MGEs in free and phage-associated fractions suggests that free
236 and phage-associated MGEs can be involved in transformation and transduction
237 processes,^{30,39} respectively, and further supports the view that free and phage-associated
238 ARGs are available sources for airborne bacterial HGT.

239

240 A synthesis of the data in the literature on conjugation, transformation, and transduction
241 frequencies in aquatic and terrestrial environments (Figure S8) revealed comparability
242 among the three HGT processes. Therefore, ARGs in free and phage-associated

243 fractions in the atmosphere may have a similar possibility of being acquired by bacterial
244 communities in the human airway upon inhalation. A recent study showed that bacteria
245 positively uptakes free DNA using pilus, showing that transformation is of great
246 importance for the environmental HGT of ARGs.⁴¹ Another study also indicated that
247 the administration of antibiotics increased the potential mobility of ARGs in the gut of
248 the *Piaractus mesopotamicus*, a freshwater fish species, while phage played an
249 important role during the process.⁴² Recent studies also uncovered gene transfer agents
250 (GTAs) for high-frequency transduction in various environments.⁴³⁻⁴⁵

251

252 We predicted the daily intake of ARGs and the lung deposition of each ARG fraction
253 (Section S3). The daily intake of free and phage-associated ARG and MGE fractions in
254 Beijing, Hangzhou, and Hong Kong was estimated to account for up to 90%, 50%, or
255 90% of the total inhalational ARG loadings (Figures S9 and S10), respectively, which
256 is comparable to or more dominant than that of the bacteria-associated fraction. The
257 total ARGs and MGEs of bacteria-associated fractions are anticipated to be dominant
258 in lung extrathoracic regions in the three cities, but in bronchial and alveolar regions,
259 the free and phage-associated fractions are also anticipated to be responsible for up to
260 70% of the total deposition due to the high deposition efficiency of the size of the
261 particulates (Figures 3 and S10). The model results also indicate that variations in gene-
262 specific lung deposition can be anticipated. For instance, free and phage-associated
263 *bla*_{TEM-1}, *ermB*, and *tetW* are predicted to be dominant sources for the bronchial and
264 alveolar regions (Figure S9). Therefore, the modeling results suggest that extracellular

265 ARGs may be an integral part of the total ARGs associated with airborne PM_{2.5} for
266 spatiotemporal dissemination, atmospheric HGT, and human lung exposure. By
267 comparing a number of exposure pathways for the intake of intracellular ARGs (*e.g.*,
268 drinking water and food ingestion) in China and the U.S.A, our previous study⁷
269 identified the region-specific relative importance of inhalation in China as well as
270 country-specific exposure scenarios. The inhalation of ambient PM_{2.5}-associated ARGs
271 means a unique pathway for the human intake of ARGs when compared to other
272 exposure pathways (*e.g.*, ingestion through food/water). When data on extracellular
273 ARGs in media of direct relevance to human exposure (*e.g.*, drinking water and food)
274 become available, such comparisons can be made to establish the full picture of human
275 exposure to exogenous ARGs, including both intracellular and extracellular fractions.

276

277 The size of free and phage-associated ARGs can be at the quasi-ultrafine particle PM_{0.1}
278 level, which is much smaller than that of bacteria-associated ARGs. The prevalence of
279 these extracellular ARGs may provide additional sources of ARGs in airborne PM_{2.5} to
280 human pulmonary bacterial communities for HGT. Future studies are warranted to
281 examine the genetic exchange/HGT of ARGs in airborne PM_{2.5} upon inhalation, for
282 example by using *in vitro* simulated lung fluid or *in vivo* animal experiments.

283

284 Linking the intracellular-extracellular partitioning of ARGs to prevailing meteorology
285 and air pollution puts the environmental dissemination of antibiotic resistance in the
286 context of evolving global climate and pollution scenarios. Geographically comparative

287 studies coupled with controlled laboratory experiments are needed to decipher the
288 mechanisms by which atmospheric processes can modify the profiles of ARGs in
289 airborne PM_{2.5} in the bacteria-virus-free DNA triad. Addressing this issue would be a
290 significant step toward a more comprehensive understanding of geographically driven
291 human health impacts via inhalable airborne microbiomes.

292

293 **ASSOCIATED CONTENT**

294 The Supporting Information is available free of charge at XXX.

- 295 • Additional information on the sampling sites; data on meteorological
296 parameters and criteria air pollutant concentrations; QA/QC for DNA extraction;
297 qPCR specifics; data on gene abundance; correlation analysis; and algorithms
298 for estimating the daily inhalational intake and respiratory deposition of ARGs
299 (PDF).
- 300 • Details requested in the MIQE guidelines for qPCR data reporting (XLSX)

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325 **Author Contributions**

326 T.T.H. and L.J. contributed equally to this work. T.T.H., L.J. and X.D. L. designed the
327 research. J.W.X., T.T.H., S.Y.Y. and P.Q.F. conducted the field work. T.T.H., J.W.X.
328 and J.L. performed the laboratory experiments and model work. T.T.H., L.J., J.W.X.,
329 and X.D. L. wrote the paper. All authors have given approval to the final version of the
330 manuscript.

331 **Notes**

332 The authors declare that they have no competing financial interests.

333

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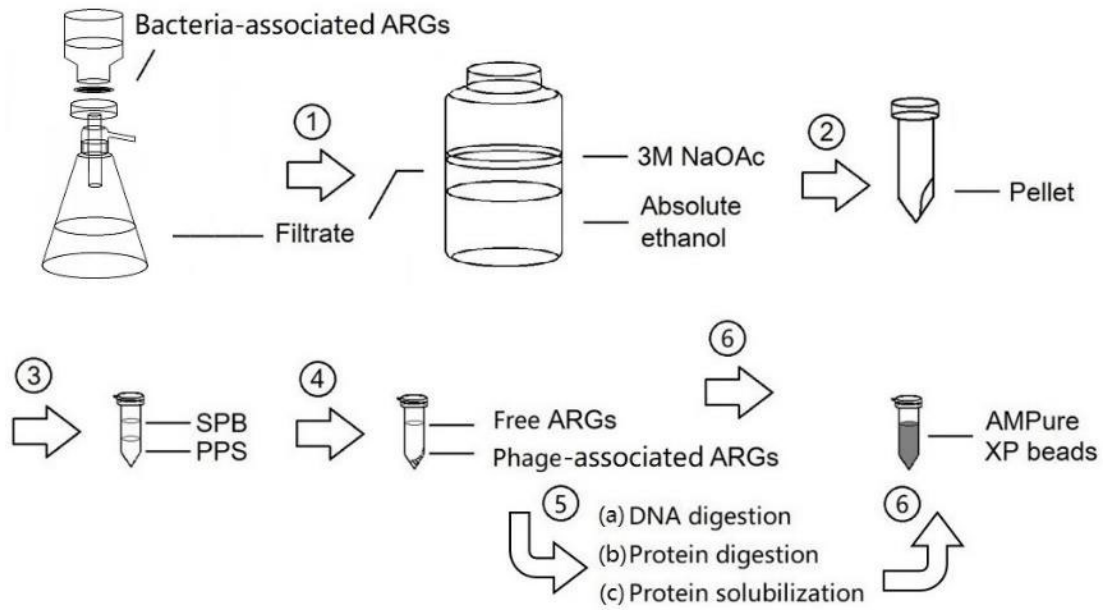
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467

468 **Figure 1.** Schematic of the method for extracting intracellular and extracellular DNA
 469 (free and phage-associated DNA). 1) filtration through a 0.2 μm PES membrane filter;
 470 2) precipitation and centrifugation; 3) dissolution of pellets in a Sodium Phosphate
 471 Buffer (SPB) and Protein Precipitation Solution (PPS); 4) centrifugation to collect the
 472 supernatant (containing free DNA) and pellets (containing virion particles); 5)
 473 separation of free and phage-associated DNA; and (6) purification of free and phage-
 474 associated DNA.



475

476 **Figure 2.** (A) Comparison of the seasonal abundance of 16S rRNA genes and three

477 representative ARGs (*sul1*: bacterial-associated fraction dominant; *qnrS* and *ermB*: free and

478 phage-associated fraction dominant) and the percentage contribution of intracellular (bacteria-

479 associated) and extracellular (free and phage-associated) fractions to each ARG in PM_{2.5} in

480 Beijing, Hangzhou, and Hong Kong (from top to bottom). The error bars represent the standard

481 deviation in the monthly samples within a season. The data on the other analyzed ARGs can be

482 found in Figure S2. (B) Variation partitioning showing the associations (%) of meteorological

483 factors (temperature, UV index, relative humidity, wind speed, and rainfall) [a], trace gases

484 (NO₂ and O₃) [b] and joint effects [c] with the partitioning of the 16S rRNA gene and ARGs

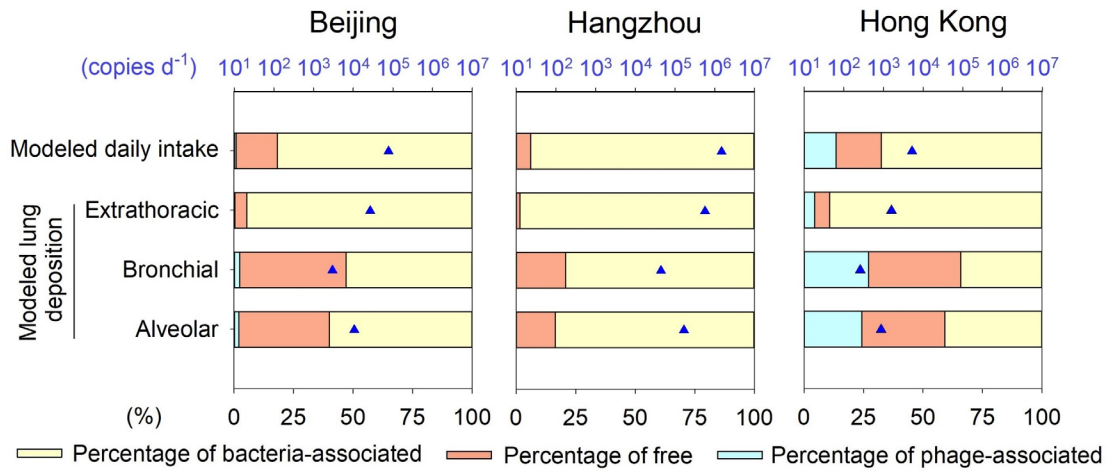
485 between intracellular and extracellular fractions in Beijing, Hangzhou, and Hong Kong.

486 Detailed results on the correlation between each parameter (meteorological factors or trace

487 gases) and the percentage contribution of 16S rRNA in bacteria-associated or free fractions and

488 ARGs in bacteria-associated, free, or phage-associated fractions can be found in Tables S8-S14

489 of SI.



490

491 **Figure 3.** Dots represent the modeled daily intake and lung deposition (*i.e.*,

492 extrathoracic, bronchial, and alveolar regions) of ARGs from bacteria-associated, free,

493 and phage-associated fractions, and bars represent the percentage of each fraction in

494 Beijing, Hangzhou, and Hong Kong.

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