

UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL AUTÓNOMA DE MÉXICO

DOCTORADO EN CIENCIAS BIOMÉDICAS CENTRO DE CIENCIAS GENÓMICAS PROGRAMA DE INGENIERÍA GENÓMICA

DELIMITACIÓN DE ESPECIES Y CARACTERIZACIÓN FENOTÍPICA DEL RESISTOMA DE PROTEOBACTERIAS RECUPERADAS DE RÍOS CONTAMINADOS Y LIMPIOS DE MORELOS

TESIS

QUE PARA OPTAR POR EL GRADO DE:

DOCTOR EN CIENCIAS

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CUERNAVACA, MOR. ABRIL, 2019





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| A mi mamá, Edith, por su apoyo incondicional y su presencia siempre alentadora y cariñosa. |
|--|
| A mis abuelitos, Francisco y Sidonia, por su cariño y porque me inculcaron el amor por la naturaleza y por el trabajo. |
| A mi hermano, Octavio, porque siempre está ahí cuando lo necesito. |
| A mis sobrinos, Íker, Pao y Layla, que hacen mi vida muy feliz. |
| A Juan, por acompañarme y motivarme. |

Agradecimientos

Agradezco al Dr. Pablo Vinuesa por su guía constante y su paciencia, que me permitieron culminar este proyecto, por ampliar mi formación con sus conocimientos y experiencia, y por fomentar mi independencia profesional.

A mi comité tutor, los doctores Miguel Ángel Cevallos Gaos y Jesús Silva Sánchez por su apoyo a lo largo de esta investigación.

A mi jurado de tesis, los doctores Luis David Alcaraz Peraza, Víctor Manuel González Zúñiga, María del Rosario Morales Espinosa y Cinthia Ernestina Núñez López, por sus atinadas observaciones a mi trabajo.

A los doctores Susana Brom, David Romero y Alejandro García y a mis compañeros de laboratorio: Agus, Alfredo, Aracely, Ciro, Eunice, Fabiola, Gonzalo, Javier, Jazmín, Laura, Mariana, Osam, Pablo, Perla, Rafa, Roger, Sofí, Toño, Ángeles, Anthony, Dani, Javiercito, Mari, Pedro, Toña por sus aportaciones certeras a mi trabajo durante los seminarios y en el transcurso de los experimentos además de compartir risas y pláticas.

Al Sr. Antonio Trujillo por su compañía y colaboración durante los muestreos, al Lic. Alfredo Hernández por su apoyo en la administración de los servidores e instalación de programa.

A Mtra. Sofía Mérida por facilitarnos los antibióticos necesarios para los experimentos.

Don Juan Alvear Gutiérrez e Ing. Norberto Bahena por permitirnos realizar el muestreo en los Sauces y las Estacas respectivamente.

A la Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México y al Centro de Ciencias Genómicas por acogerme estos años.

Al Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología (CONACYT), por otorgarme la beca que hizo posible llevar a cabo mi investigación científica de tiempo completo.

Al Posgrado en Ciencias Biomédicas y al Programa en Ingeniería Genómica del Centro de Ciencias Genómicas donde pude llevar a cabo mi formación y realizar los experimentos del este proyecto.

Al programa de Apoyos de Estudio de Posgrado (PAEP) por el financiamiento para asistir a los siguientes congresos: 115th General Meeting /American Society for Microbiology 2015 y ASM Microbe 2016 Boston, Massachusetts.

A la Lic. Adela Iglesias, por su invaluable apoyo en la redacción y corrección del texto de esta tesis, durante horas interminables, aligeradas por el humor y la amistad.

A los maestros Andrea Salas, Sergio Bautistas y Zafiro Andrade por su apoyo, comprensión y enseñanzas recibidas durante mi periodo de titulación.

A mis amigos que me escucharon y animaron durante este tiempo, Ana, Barbie, Denis, Eliza, Juan Carlos, Mario, Migue, Mir, Noé, Paty, Prisma, Rocio, Tito, Victor.

Marisol Villafañez y Denny Peralta por su guía en el proceso de titulación.

Índice de general

| Glosario |
|---|
| I. Resumen |
| II. Abstract |
| 1. Esquema general y motivación de la tesis1 |
| 2. Introducción y antecedentes generales2 |
| 3. Planteamiento del problema6 |
| 4. Hipótesis7 |
| 4.1 Predicciones de la hipótesis |
| 5. Objetivo general7 |
| 5.1 Objetivos particulares7 |
| 6. Diseño experimental8 |
| Capítulo 1. Prospección de la diversidad y de los perfiles de resistencia de las proteobacterias |
| ambientales9 |
| Capítulo 2. Stenotrophomonas16 |
| 2.1 Antecedentes: Microbiología, epidemiología y taxonomía del género16 |
| 2.2 Objetivos |
| 2.3 Resultados |
| 2.3.1 Delimitación de especies de la colección de aislamientos ambientales de Stenotrophomonas |
| 2.3.1.1 Estructura filogenética del género <i>Stenotrophomonas</i> : Identificación de ocho |
| especies, entre las cuales destaca <i>S. maltophilia</i> , y definición de hipótesis de bordes de |
| especies20 |
| 2.3.1.2 Delimitación de especies en el complejo S. maltophilia (S. maltophilia sensu stricto |
| y cuatro nuevas especies) mediante la delimitación bayesiana basada en el coalescente |
| multiespecies y análisis de factores de Bayes22 |
| 2.3.1.3 Análisis de la estructura genética de las poblaciones ambientales del complejo S |
| maltophilia |
| 2.3.1.4 Determinación de los polimorfismos de ADN y las tasas de recombinación en poblaciones ambientales Smc y Sterr |
| 2.3.2 Filogenia genómica del género <i>Stenotrophomonas</i> |
| 2.3.2.1 Validación y refinamiento de la delimitación de especies realizada con MLSA |
| mediante aproximaciones filogenómicas |
| 2.3.3 Análisis de asociación de las propiedades fenotípicas y ecológicas de los linajes: S. |
| maltophilia como única productora de metalo-β-lactamasas |
| . 2.3.3.1 Análisis de correspondencia múltiple (MCA)25 |
| 2.3.3.2 Análisis de la varianza27 |
| 2.3.3.3 Gráficas de asociación de la expresión de fenotipos de β-lactamasas28 |

| 2.3.3.4 Asociación de especies de <i>Stenotrophomonas</i> y habitat de aisiamient | 029 |
|---|----------------------|
| 2.3.4 Métodos comerciales demuestran poca sensibilidad para la identificación | n de especies |
| Stenotrophomonas no maltophilia | 30 |
| 2.3.5 Pruebas de susceptibilidad para Stenotrophomonas frente a antibiótico | s de elección |
| (CLSI, EUKAST): Levofloxacino como una opción para el tratamiento de | infecciones |
| ocasionadas por S. maltophilia | 32 |
| 2.3.6 Ejemplos puntuales del impacto de la contaminación antropogénio | ca sobre los |
| elementos genéticos móviles de Stenotrophomonas acidaminiphila | 34 |
| 2.4 Discusión | 37 |
| 2.5 Conclusión | 40 |
| 2.6 Perspectivas | 41 |
| Capítulo 3. <i>Acinetobacter</i> | 42 |
| 3.1 Antecedentes: Microbiología, epidemiología y taxonomía del género | 42 |
| 3.2 Objetivos | |
| 3.3 Métodos | 48 |
| 3.3.1 Desarrollo e implementación de un esquema de MSLA | 48 |
| 3.4 Resultados | 49 |
| 3.4.1 Propuesta de un nuevo esquema de MLSA a nivel de género para Aci | |
| formulación de los oligonucleótidos | 49 |
| 3.4.2 Diversidad genética de Acinetobacter analizado con el nuevo esquen | na de MLSA: |
| Identificación de nueve especies y tres posibles nuevas especies recuperada | as de ríos de |
| Morelos | 50 |
| 3.4.3 Asociación entre Acinetobacter y el hábitat de aislamiento | 52 |
| 3.4.4 Resistencia de Acinetobacter a antimicrobianos: A. baumannii y A. be | <i>ereziniae</i> son |
| panresistentes | 52 |
| 3.4.5 Filogenia genómica y análisis genómico de 14 cepas ambientales n | nexicanas de |
| Acinetobacter | 54 |
| 3.4.6 Elementos genéticos móviles en Acinetobacter | 57 |
| 3.4.7 Asociación de las características ambientales y genéticas de 14 cepas de A | Acinetobactei |
| mexicanas | 63 |
| 3.5 Discusión | 66 |
| 3.6 Conclusión | 68 |
| 3.7 Perspectivas | 69 |
| 7. Conclusiones generales | 70 |
| 8. Materiales y métodos | 71 |
| 8.1 Sitios de muestreo | 71 |
| 8.2 Aislamiento de microorganismos ambientales | |
| 8.3 Determinación de perfiles de resistencia | |
| 8.4 Amplificación mediante reacción en cadena de la polimerasa (PCR) de secue | |
| rDNA y su análisis filogenético | |
| 8.5 Identificación fenotípica de BLEEs v MBLs | |

| 1 | 0. Bibliografía | 168 |
|---|---|------|
| 9 | . Anexos | 76 |
| | 8.8.3 Secuenciación, ensamble, anotación y análisis de genomas | 74 |
| | 8.8.2 Perfil de plásmidos | 74 |
| | multilocus | 74 |
| | 8.8.1 Amplificación de PCR y análisis filogenético de máxima verosimilitud de secuencia | s de |
| | 8.8 Metodología empleada en el capítulo 3: Acinetobacter | 74 |
| | 8.7 Metodología capítulo 1: Stenotrophomonas | 74 |
| | 8.6 Secuenciación de genomas completos de cepas selectas | 74 |

Índice de figuras

| Figura 1A. Sitios de muestreo del estudio9 |
|---|
| Figura 1B. Localización de los cinco puntos de muestreo9 |
| Figura 1C. Aspecto de los cinco puntos de muestreo10 |
| Figura 2. Porcentaje de eficiencia de los medios utilizados en este estudio para recuperar diferentes géneros12 |
| Figura 3. Desglose taxonómico a nivel de género de 800 secuencias de 16S RNA13 |
| Figura 4. Análisis de <i>clustering</i> jerárquico de perfiles de resistencia a antibióticos correspondientes a los aislamientos de agua y sedimentos el río Apatlaco (Temixco; muestreo realizado en mayo de 2013)15 |
| Figura 5. Filogenia de máxima verosimilitud (ML) de las secuencias de multilocus de las especies del género Stenotrophomonas |
| Figura 6. Análisis de la estructura poblacional de nuestras cepas, correspondientes al complejo <i>S. maltophilia</i> a Smc1, a Smc2 y a Smc424 |
| Figura 7. Análisis de correspondencia múltiple26 |
| Figura 8. ANOVA de una vía muestra a <i>S. maltophilia</i> como MDR, donde los aislamientos de sitios contaminados presentan mayor número de resistencias a antibióticos27 |
| Figura 9. Gráfico de asociación bidireccional de las especies de <i>Stenotrophomonas</i> con > 10 aislamientos ambientales mexicanos y su fenotipo de producción de β -lactamasas28 |
| Figura 10. Gráfico de asociación de cuatro vías con los resultados del análisis de χ^2 multivía de las especies de <i>Stenotrophomonas</i> con respecto al hábitat, el medio de aislamiento y el nivel de contaminación del sitio de aislamiento |
| Figura 11. Análisis de red de la susceptibilidad de <i>Stenotrophomonas</i> frente a antibióticos de elección, antibióticos de última generación e inhibidores de β-lactamasas33 |
| Figura 12. Diagramas de caja para el número individual de resistencias a antimicrobianos de los aislamientos ambientales mexicanos de <i>Stenotrophomonas</i> |
| Figura 13A. Resistencia adquirida en <i>S acidaminiphila (</i> TEXM2D_MKIMI4_3) debido a que codifica un integrón de clase 1 que contiene bla-OXA-2 una β-lactamasa de clase D que no se ha reportado previamente en <i>Stenotrophomonas</i> 36 |
| Figura 13B. Filogenia de máxima verosimilitud de la β-lactamasa de clase D bla-OXA-2 con los 30 blastp hits |
| Figura 14. Filogenia de máxima verosimilitud de la cepa ZAC14D2_NAIMI4_2 de la proteína AOT14_04360 que codifica a una nueva cloranfenicol O-acetiltransferasa, con 50 blastp hits37 |
| Figura 15. Mapa de distribución de los amplicones del gen rpoB del género Acinetobacter48 |
| Figura 16. Distribución de longitud de rama de los seis oligonucleótidos seleccionados49 |

| Figura 17. Valores de soporte de ramas para los seis oligonucleótidos propuestos en nuestro esquema |
|--|
| Figura 18. Filogenia de Máxima Verosimilitud (ML) con seis genes de MLSA diseñado para el género <i>Acinetobacter</i> |
| Figura 19. Gráfico de asociación de tres vías muestra los resultados del análisis χ^2 de las especies de <i>Acinetobacter</i> con respecto al hábitat y la calidad ambiental del sitio de donde fueron aisladas |
| Figura 20. Diversidad de los fenotipos de susceptibilidad, resistencia y expresión de ß-lactamasas detectadas entre los aislamientos de <i>Acinetobacter</i> (A-F) ambientales mexicanos53 |
| Figura 21. Filogenia de máxima verosimilitud del genoma core del género <i>Acinetobacter</i> a partir de la supermatriz obtenida por la concatenación de 834 alineamientos seleccionados con GET_PHYLOMARKERS56 |
| Figura 22. Perfil de plásmidos de asilamientos ambientes de especies pertenecientes al género Acinetobacter mediante la técnica (Kieser et al., 1984) |
| Figura 23. Integrón de clase I de <i>Acinetobacter_baumannii_</i> TEXM2A_MKIMI4_1658 |
| Figura 24. Integrón de clase I de <i>Acinetobacter_bereziniae_</i> TEXM3A_SCIMI4_258 |
| Figura 25. Genes de resistencia a antibióticos identificados en aislamientos ambientales mexicanos del género <i>Acinetobacter</i> contra la base de dados CARD59 |
| Figura 26. Filogenia genómica de 14 cepas selectas de <i>Acinetobacter</i> ambientales mexicanas .63 |
| Figura 27. Ejemplo de la disposición de los sensidisco en la técnica de sinergismo de doble disco (SDD) realizado en una cepa control productora de MBL y ESBL72 |

Índice de tablas

| Tabla 1. Clasificación de los sitios de muestreo basada en los niveles de conteo de coliformes fecales termotolerantes (TTFCs) y <i>E. coli</i> termotolerante (TTEc) unidades formadoras de colonia (cfu/100ml), medidas en la columna de agua10 |
|--|
| Tabla 2. Taxonomía del género <i>Stenotrophomonas</i> 16 |
| Tabla 3. Análisis de factor de Bayes para la hipótesis de delimitación de cinco especies dentro del complejo <i>S. maltophilia,</i> más los genogrupos #8 y #10, basados en las probabilidades marginales calculadas para cada hipótesis por nuestra vía de muestreo23 |
| Tabla 4. Pruebas de neutralidad McDonald-Kreitman (MK), diferenciación genética y estimaciones de flujo genético entre aislamientos ambientales de los linajes Smc1, Smc2 y <i>S. maltophilia</i> recuperados de ríos Mexicanos basado en el conjunto de datos concatenado (3591 sitios) |
| Tabla 5. Estadística descriptiva de polimorfismos de DNA, pruebas de crecimientos de población y neutralidad para los aislamientos ambientales de Smc1, Smc2, <i>S. maltophilia</i> (Smal) y <i>S. terrae</i> (S. terr) linajes recuperados de ríos mexicanos con base en el conjunto de datos concatenados (3591 sitios) |
| Tabla 6. Estimaciones de recombinación para aislamientos ambientales de Smc1, Smc2, <i>S. maltophilia</i> (Smal) y <i>S. terrae</i> (Sterr)25 |
| Tabla 7. Clasificación de especies de <i>Stenotrophomonas</i> con base en diferentes metodologías 31 |
| Tabla 8. Taxonomía del género <i>Acinetobacter</i> 42 |
| Tabla 9. Valores de kde obtenidos para los genes propuestos en nuestro esquema de MLST50 |
| Tabla 10. Características de las secuencias de genomas de cepas ambientales del género Acinetobacter |
| Tabla 11. Funciones y mecanismos de acción identificados en genes de resistencia a antibióticos de nuestros aislamientos ambientales mexicanos de <i>Acinetobacter</i> que cuentan con secuencia de su genoma completo (n=14)60 |

Glosario

ANI: Identidad nucleotídica promedio (por sus siglas en inglés)

BLEE: de espectro extendido

CDC: Centro para el control y prevención de enfermedades (por sus siglas en inglés)

ECDC: Centro europeo para el control y prevención de enfermedades (por sus siglas en inglés)

ESKAPE: Es un acrónimo que abarca los nombre de seis patógenos bacterianos comúnmente asociados con la resistencia antimicrobiana. Las seis especies son *Enterococcus faecium, Staphylococcus aureus, Klebsiella pneumoniae, Acinetobacter baumannii, Pseudomonas aeruginosa* y *Enterobacter.*

ICE: Elementos integrativos conjugativos

IDSA: Infectious Diseases Society of America

MBL: Metalo- β-lactamasa

MDR: Multidrogo resistente

ML: Máxima verosimilitud

MLSA: Multi Locus Sequence Analysis

MSC: Coalescente multiespecies

OMS: Organización Mundial de la Salud

I. Resumen

Una de las mayores amenazas para la salud humana radica en el hecho de que las bacterias patógenas oportunistas están adquiriendo una creciente resistencia a los agentes antibióticos. Durante muchos años, la resistencia bacteriana a los antibióticos se ha estudiado con un fuerte sesgo clínico. Sin embargo, recientemente la investigación en los ambientes naturales ha tomado relevancia. Por un lado, está claro que el resistoma ambiental es el principal reservorio de nuevos genes de resistencia. Por otro lado, se ha postulado que la liberación masiva de poblaciones de bacterias asociadas al tracto digestivo de humanos y animales, y su diseminación a través de las aguas residuales, puede promover el intercambio de determinantes de resistencia entre las bacterias transitorias y exógenas, provenientes de los desechos, y las bacterias nativas.

En este contexto, postulamos la hipótesis de que las comunidades nativas de proteobacterias que habitan lugares con fuerte contaminación residual estarán enriquecidas en determinantes de resistencia. Adquirirían estos determinantes por transferencia horizontal de diversos elementos genéticos móviles donados por bacterias fecales.

Para validar la hipótesis, comparamos la diversidad y perfiles de resistencia de una amplia colección de proteobacterias recuperadas a lo largo de tres años en el Estado de Morelos. Los especímenes se recuperaron a partir de sedimentos y columna de agua de ríos y arroyos con niveles contrastantes de contaminación.

Para hacer un análisis comparativo relevante, decidimos que era crítico identificar al menos dos géneros bacterianos, que pudiéramos recuperar de todas las muestras ambientales, de alta prevalencia como agentes causales de infecciones oportunistas nosocomiales. Además, para poder hacer una asociación precisa entre los fenotipos y los genotipos bacterianos, fue esencial realizar una delimitación precisa y fidedigna de las especies bacterianas. Esto lo logramos mediante análisis multilocus de secuencias (MLSA) con métodos filogenéticos y de genética de poblaciones avanzados. De entre todas las especies que recuperamos, nos enfocamos en las de los géneros *Stenotrophomonas* y *Acinetobacter*, ya que identificamos medios de cultivo que nos permitieron recuperarlas consistentemente de sedimentos y columna de agua de sitios limpios y contaminados. Además, ciertas especies de estos géneros cuentan entre las más prevalentes y peligrosas como patógenos oportunistas, y estas resultaron ser las que presentaron mayor resistencia a antibióticos.

Recuperamos una amplia diversidad de bacterias del género *Stenotrophomonas*, y descubrimos varias cosas: *i*) Existen muchos problemas taxonómicos en la literatura y bases de datos de secuencia; *ii*) los linajes basales son poco resistentes, mientras que algunos del *S. maltophilia* complex (Smc) son mucho más resistentes; *iii*) el Smc comprende al menos cinco linajes, que definimos así: cuatro genoespecies nuevas, de resistencia intermedia y *S. maltophilia sensu lato* (*Smsl*), que comprende un grupo de especies con fenotipo de multirresistencia a los antibióticos y expresión de metalo-β-lactamasas, incluyendo a *S. maltophilia sensu stricto*. De los 108 aislamientos analizados de este género, la mayoría correspondía al *Smc*, y dentro de este predominaban los aislamientos clasificados como *Smsl*. Identificamos otras especies (*S. acidaminiphila, S. humi* y *S. terrae*), correspondientes a los linajes basales, que resultaron ser muy susceptibles a los antibióticos. Estos resultados conforman la publicación Ochoa-Sánchez y Vinuesa, (2017).

Mediante un análisis filogenómico, pudimos validar la clasificación basada en el MLSA. Adicionalmente, el análisis de secuencias genómicas reveló que las cepas de *S. acidaminiphila* recuperadas de sedimentos contaminados portan genes de resistencia novedosos, ligados a elementos genéticos móviles (EGM) cromosomales, como islas genómicas y un nuevo integrón

de clase I, portador de casettes de resistencia similares a los de bacterias entéricas y *Pseudomonas* hospitalarias. Cabe resaltar que no se detectaron plásmidos en los aislamientos ni en las secuencias genómicas, lo cual demuestra el impacto de los EGM cromosomales en la transferencia de resistencias (resistencia adquirida).

En cuanto al género *Acinetobacter*, desarrollamos un esquema de MLSA basado en seis *loci* del genoma *core* amplificados con oligonucleótidos degenerados. El análisis de 37 aislamientos ambientales con este esquema permitió identificar 11 especies conocidas (*A. tandoii*, *A. schindleri*, *A. johnsonii*, *A. bereziniae*, *A. soli*, *A. baumannii*, *A. pittii*, *A. oleivorans*, *A. junii*, *A. beijerinckii* y *A. lactucae*) y tres posibles nuevas especies, a las cuales denominamos: *A. sp1*, *A. sp2* y *A. sp3*. Estos aislamientos abarcan buena parte del espectro de diversidad filogenética del género, lo cual demuestra la utilidad y robustez del esquema. Generamos las secuencias genómicas para 14 de estos aislamientos, y un análisis filogenómico de las mismas mostró que la clasificación por MLSA era totalmente congruente con la filogenia del *core* genómico, lo cual demostró su utilidad para delimitar especies en el género. Descubrimos varias cosas: *i*) Nuestros aislamientos ambientales de *A. baumannii* y *A. bereziniae* son pan-resistentes; *ii*) los aislamientos recuperados de sitios contaminados portan un número mucho mayor de plásmidos y son más resistentes que los obtenidos de sitios limpios; *iii*) reportamos también dos nuevos integrones de clase I para A. *baumannii* y *A. bereziniae*.

Después de haber analizado los aislamientos de *Stenotrophomonas*, carente de plásmidos, y *Acinetobacter*, con número variable de plásmidos, pudimos concluir que la contaminación antropogénica juega un papel determinante en el moldeado del resistoma de las especies de proteobacterias nativas estudiadas. En particular, un ambiente contaminado promueve la adquisición, vía transferencia horizontal, de EGM, tanto cromosomales como plasmídicos, portadores de determinantes de resistencia a una amplia gama de antibióticos de todas las familias de relevancia clínica.

II. Abstract

One of the main threats for human health lies in the fact that opportunistic pathogenic bacteria are increasingly becoming resistant to antibiotic agents. For many years, bacterial antibiotic resistance has been studied with a strong clinical bias. Recently, gowever, investigation in natural environments has become relevant. On the one hand, it is clear that the environmental resistome is the main reservoir of antibiotic resistance genes. On the other, it has been posed that the massive liberation of bacterial populations associated to the digestive tract of humans and animals, as well as their spread through residual waters, can promote the interchange of resistance determinants among transitory and exogenous bacteria, coming from waste, and native bacteria.

In this context, we pose the hypothesis that the resistance determinants of native communities of proteobacteria living in places with strong residual pollution will be enriched. They would acquire these determinants through the horizontal transference of several mobile genetic elements granted by fecal bacteria.

To validate our hypothesis, we compared the diversity and the resistance profiles of a large collection of proteobacteria. The specimens were retrieved during three years in the state of Morelos from the sediment and water column of rivers with different levels of pollution.

To carry out a relevant comparative analysis, we decided that it was critical to identify at least two bacterial genus, which could be retrieved from the environmental samples, with high prevalence as causative agents of opportunistic, nosocomial infections. Moreover, in order to make a precise association between bacterial phenotypes and genotypes, it was essential to carry out a precise and reliable delimitation of the bacterial species. This was achieved through multilocus sequence analyses (MLSA) with advanced phylogenetic and population genetics approaches. Among all the species we retrieved, we focused on the genus *Stenotrophomonas* and *Acinetobacter*, because we identified culture mediums that allowed us to retrieve them consistently from the sediment and water column of rivers from clean and polluted sites. Moreover, some of the species belonging to these genus are among the most prevalent and dangerous as opportunistic pathogens, and they turned out to be the ones with the highest antibiotic resistance.

We retrieved a large diversity from the genus *Stenotrophomonas*, and we found several things: *i*) There are many taxonomical problems in the existing literature and sequence databases; *ii*) the basal lineages are not very resistant, whereas some belonging to the S. *maltophilia* complex (Smc) are much more resistant; *iii*) the Smc comprises at least five lineages. We defined these lineages as follows: Four new genospecies with intermediate resistance and *S. maltophilia sensu lato (Smsl)*, which comprises a group of species with a multiple drug resistant phenotype and expression of metallo-β-lactamases, including *S. maltophilia sensu stricto*. Out of the 108 *Stenotrophomonas* isolates, most corresponded to the *Smc*; among them, the most predominant were classified as *Smsl*. We also identified other species (*S. acidaminiphila*, *S. humi* and *S. terrae*), corresponding to the basal lineages, which turned out to be very susceptible to antibiotics. These results make up the paper by Ochoa-Sánchez and Vinuesa (2017).

By means of a phylogenetic analysis, we were able to validate the MLSA-based classification. Furthermore, the genomic sequences analysis revealed that the *S. acidaminiphila* strains retrieved from polluted sediments carry novel resistance genes, linked to chromosomal mobile genetic elements (MGEs), such as genomic islands and a new class I integron that carries

resistance cassettes similar to those carried by enteric bacteria and nosocomial *Pseudomonas*. It is worth noting that no plasmids were detected in the isolates nor in the genomic sequences. This confirms the impact of chromosomal MGEs in the transference of resistance (acquired resistance).

With respect to the *Acinetobacter* genus, we developed a MLSA scheme based on six *loci* from the core genome amplified with degenerate oligonucleotides. The analysis of 37 environmental isolates with this scheme allowed us to identify 11 known species (*A. tandoii, A. schindleri, A. johnsonii, A. bereziniae, A. soli, A. baumannii, A. pittii, A. oleivorans, A. junii, A. beijerinckii and <i>A. lactucae*) and three possible new species, which we called: *A. sp1, A. sp2* and *A. sp3*. These isolates comprise a good deal of the phylogenetic spectrum of the genus, which points to the usefulness and robustness of the scheme. We generated the genomic sequences for 14 of these isolates and carried out a phylogenomic analysis with the results. This showed that the MLSA-based classification was completely congruent with genomic core phylogeny, which points to its usefulness when delimitating the species of the genus. We found out several things: *i*) Our *A. baumannii* and *A. bereziniae* environmental isolates are pan-resistant; *ii*) isolates retrieved from polluted sites carry a much higher number of plasmids and more resistant than those retrieved from clean sites; *iii*) we reported two new class I integrons for *A. baumannii* and *A. bereziniae*.

After having analyzed the *Stenotrophomonas* isolates, with no plasmids, and the *Acinetobacter* isolates, with a variable number of plasmids, we were able to conclude that anthropogenic pollution plays a determinant role in modeling the resistome of the native proteobacteria studied. More specifically, a polluted environment promotes the acquisition, via horizontal transference, of MGES, both chromosomal and plasmidic, carriers of resistance determinants to a wide range of antibiotics from all the families with clinical relevance.

1. Esquema general y motivación de la tesis

El presente trabajo surge debido a la inquietud por aportar información relevante que contribuya a caracterizar y entender mejor la dimensión ambiental de la creciente problemática de resistencia antimicrobiana en diferentes especies de bacterias. Nuestra investigación se centró en el ambiente natural, ya que la mayoría de los estudios en este campo se han enfocado al entorno clínico. En México son muy escasos los estudios enfocados al análisis comparativo del resistoma de comunidades y poblaciones ambientes de bacterias.

Este trabajo está conformado por tres capítulos y una introducción general:

La primera parte es una introducción, que aborda los siguientes puntos: Los antecedentes generales, el planteamiento del problema, las preguntas de investigación, la hipótesis, las predicciones de la hipótesis, los objetivos (general y particulares), los requisitos para el cumplimiento de los objetivos. El capítulo uno reporta los resultados de la fase prospectiva del proyecto: análisis de la diversidad y de los perfiles de resistencia de las proteobacterias ambientales).

El segundo capítulo está dedicado al género *Stenotrophomonas* y aborda los siguientes puntos: Los antecedentes generales, los objetivos particulares, los resultados, la discusión, la conclusión y las perspectivas futuras. Fue a partir de este capítulo que se obtuvieron tres publicaciones, incluyendo la requerida para la obtención del grado. Las tres se anexan al final.

El tercer capítulo está dedicado al género *Acinetobacter* y aborda los siguientes puntos: Los antecedentes generales, los objetivos particulares, los resultados, la discusión, la conclusión y las perspectivas futuras. Datos no publicados.

Al final, aparecen dos secciones adicionales, que son comunes para los tres capítulos anteriores: Las conclusiones generales de la investigación, por un lado, y los materiales y métodos utilizados, por el otro.

Además, se incluye una serie de Anexos con información detallada de algunos de los temas abordados en los capítulos.

2. Introducción y antecedentes generales

Diferentes organizaciones, como los Centros de Control y Prevención de Enfermedades (**CDC**), el Centro Europeo para el Control y Prevención de Enfermedades (**ECDC**) y la Organización Mundial de la Salud (**OMS**), consideran que las infecciones causadas por bacterias resistentes a múltiples drogas (**MDR**) son una emergencia global y constituyen un grave problema de salud pública (Roca et al. 2015). Las infecciones causadas por estos microorganismos se han vuelto difíciles e incluso imposibles de tratar con los antibióticos actuales, lo cual ha redundado en una alta morbilidad y mortalidad en la población y, además, en altos costos para la sociedad (Carlet et al. 2011).

A nivel mundial, el incremento de la resistencia bacteriana a los antibióticos involucra muchos patógenos. Entre ellos, destaca un grupo de bacterias **multirresistentes** (resistentes a más de tres familias de antibióticos) y **panresistentes** (resistentes a todos los antibióticos excepto a dos familias) (Magiorakos et al. 2012), cuya prevalencia en los hospitales es alta. Este grupo se ha denominado **ESKAPE**, según la primera letra de cada especie que lo integra (Boucher et al. 2009): **E**, Enterococcus faecium; **S**, Staphylococcus aureus; **K**, Klebsiella pneumoniae; **A**, Acinetobacter baumannii; **P**, Pseudomonas aeruginosa; **E**, Enterobacteriaceae, como Eschericia coli y Enterobacter cloacae.

En México, se llevó a cabo un estudio en todos los hospitales pertenecientes al Instituto Mexicano del Seguro Social que reveló que los microorganismos aislados con mayor frecuencia en infecciones nosocomiales son: *Escherichia coli* (16.4%), *Staphylococcus coagulasa-negativa* (14.7%), *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (11.1 %), *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (6.7%), y *Acinetobacter spp.* (3.5%) (Arias-Flores et al. 2016). También existe una alerta con respecto a bacterias emergentes, como *Ochrobactrum anthropi* (Romano et al. 2009); (Shrishrimal 2012) y reemergentes, como *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* (Brooke 2012, 2014; Ryan et al. 2009). Es muy importante señalar que estas y otras especies relacionadas de proteobacterias se encuentran también en ambientes extrahospitalarios, como los cuerpos de agua, los suelos y las plantas (Perry and Wright 2013).

La investigación de los ecosistemas no clínicos ha cobrado relevancia en este siglo, pues se les considera determinantes para entender la evolución de la resistencia a los antibióticos entre las bacterias (Alonso, Sánchez et al. 2000; Timothy R. Walsh & Mark A. Toleman 2005; Aminov 2009, Martínez JL, 2018). Puesto que las bacterias (nativas y exógenas) están intercambiando continuamente material genético, incluyendo los genes de resistencia antimicrobiana (Sánchez, Hernández et al. 2008; Sánchez, Hernández et al., 2009), es

indispensable encontrar formas para contribuir a la solución del problema de la resistencia considerando su dimensión ambiental.

En lo que respecta a los ambientes acuáticos, es importante resaltar que las bacterias presentes en el agua pueden ser **nativas** (bacterias residentes del sitio, como las presentes en los sedimentos), **exógenas** (bacterias que se incorporan al pasar el agua y quedan en la superficie de los sedimentos) o **transitorias** (bacterias que meramente pasan por el sitio arrastradas por la columna de agua). Las bacterias llegan a estos ambientes principalmente de dos maneras: de forma natural, a través de los desechos de los vegetales y los animales silvestres y a través de los residuos de suelo; y de forma antropogénica, a través de los desechos provenientes de los hospitales, las granjas de animales, las industrias y los hogares. Esta última modalidad contribuye de manera determinante al proceso de contaminación, en el cual las aguas residuales juegan un papel medular (Martínez 2018)(Baquero, Martínez, and Cantón 2008). Esto se ha demostrado en estudios realizados en ambientes acuáticos marinos que han reportado que más del 90% de las cepas bacterianas encontradas en el mar son resistentes a más de un antibiótico y el 20%, al menos a cinco (Baquero, Martínez, and Cantón 2008).

De especial relevancia para nuestra investigación, es el hecho de que el agua no solo representa una vía de diseminación de organismos resistentes a antibióticos entre poblaciones humanas y animales, sino que también es una ruta por la cual los genes que confieren resistencia a los antibióticos —provenientes principalmente de los residuos humanos antes mencionados— están introduciéndose en las comunidades bacterianas nativas. Ahí, se lleva a cabo un proceso de intercambio y adquisición de material genético, incluyendo los genes de resistencia, punto focal de nuestro estudio. Posteriormente, estas bacterias o sus genes de resistencia pueden retransmitirse, directa o indirectamente, de vuelta a los ambientes humanos (Zhan et al. 2008).

El impacto de la actividad humana se ha observado incluso en las bacterias de lugares remotos, como la Antártida, que muestran varios grados de resistencia a antibióticos (De Souza et al. 2006). A pesar de las barreras geográficas, los genes de resistencia se han transmitido a las poblaciones humanas más aisladas, donde existen aún en ausencia de una evidente presión de selección. Un ejemplo de ello se encuentra en la selva amazónica peruana, donde se han detectado niveles altos de resistencia a los antibióticos más antiguos en las *E. coli* comensales de los habitantes de la zona, que nunca han sido tratados con estos agentes (Bartoloni et al. 2009, 2008). Se puede suponer que la exposición se dio a través del agua, que acarrea también residuos de fármacos (Ezzariai et al. 2018)

El uso excesivo de antibióticos ha provocado que estos compuestos se acumulen en el ambiente. El impacto de esta acumulación en la emergencia de la resistencia antimicrobiana no debe subestimarse (Roca et al. 2015). Algunos de los antibióticos utilizados para el tratamiento de patógenos humanos también se han usado para tratar enfermedades en animales y también como agentes profilácticos y promotores del crecimiento (Coenen et al. 2013). Todo esto ha promovido la utilización indebida de estos fármacos, favorecido por las pobres políticas para regir su uso.

Por ejemplo, la filosofía y la legislación de la administración de antibióticos en la agricultura varía entre países. Suecia promulgó la Ley de Comestibles que prohíbe la administración de antibióticos al ganado (Hughes 2004). Sin embargo, otros países, como el Reino Unido, los Estados Unidos, Noruega, México, la India e Indonesia aprueban el uso de oxitetraciclina en acuacultura. Destaca el hecho de que solo México e Indonesia permite el uso de enrofloxacin (Serrano 2013).

La conjunción de todas estas circunstancias ha desembocado en el gravísimo problema de salud pública que mencionamos al inicio de este trabajo: la diseminación de la multirresistencia antimicrobiana entre las bacterias, tanto en ambientes naturales como clínicos.

El estudio de la evolución y la ecología de la resistencia antimicrobiana es esencial para entender el problema y poder combatirlo (F. Walsh 2013). Una de las bases para poder llevar esto a cabo es la identificación y la delimitación de las especies microbianas, tanto en los ambientes clínicos como en los extrahospitalarios (agricultura, bioterrorismo, industria y medio ambiente) (Vinuesa et al. 2008). El concepto de especie en estos microorganismos se ha debatido durante varias décadas y sigue siendo un tema controversial. Los retos para definir una especie bacteriana incluyen su diversidad genética, su reproducción asexual y su capacidad para transferir genes horizontalmente (Shapiro, Leducq, and Mallet 2016). De acuerdo a las teorías actuales, para delimitar las especies es esencial identificar sus atributos fenotípicos específicos, relevantes en su nicho ecológico (Cordero and Polz 2014); (Cadillo-Quiroz et al. 2012; Shapiro 2014). Una delimitación correcta es crítica para entender la ecología y evolución de la resistencia a los antibióticos. Esto es así porque permite hacer asociaciones precisas entre fenotipos y genotipos y determinar cuáles son las bacterias verdaderamente resistentes, identificando su resistoma.

El resistoma antibiótico es la colección de todos los genes que directa o indirectamente contribuyen a la resistencia frente a estos agentes, tanto en el ámbito clínico como en el

ambiental o en el espacio de interacción entre ambos (Perry and Wright 2013). Este resistoma comprende todos los genes o las vías metabólicas capaces de conferir resistencia cuando se expresan en un hospedero específico (Dantas and Sommer 2012). El resistoma puede identificarse en diferentes niveles de complejidad: desde los genes de resistencia específicos hasta un plásmido, una cepa (Poirel, Bonnin, and Nordmann 2011), una comunidad microbiana definida (Sommer, Dantas, and Church 2009; Riesenfeld, Goodman, and Handelsman 2004) o un nicho ambiental.

La tecnología que está revolucionando la identificación bacteriana es la **secuenciación de genomas** completos de última generación. En conjunto con análisis filogenéticos, esta estrategia permite entender la historia evolutiva y la diversidad genómica de las especies bacterianas. Ilumina es el nombre de la tecnología que domina el mercado actualmente. Se caracteriza por su capacidad para secuenciar millones de pequeños fragmentos de ADN en paralelo. Ilumina permite generar la secuencia genómica completa, aunque fragmentada. Una solución para este problema es la secuenciación de tercera generación, que ofrece lecturas largas. PacBio y Oxford Nanopore destacan como las plataformas líderes en el mercado (Goodwin, McPherson, and McCombie 2016).

Estos análisis pueden abarcar el genoma en su totalidad o diferentes porciones del mismo. Se utiliza el término pangenoma (propuesto por (Tettelin et al. 2005) para referirnos a la totalidad de genes de una especie. El pangenoma , a su vez, comprende a: 1) genoma core, que abarca todos los genes cuyas funciones están relacionadas con las funciones básicas de la especie y que comparten las cepas de un estudio; 2) genoma accesorio, también conocido como cepa específica o prescindible, que contiene información genética presente en una o más cepas, es donde se encuentran los genes de resistencia antimicrobiana, y permite la adaptación a diferentes nichos, y 3) genes únicos, que son aquellos presentes en un solo genoma. El pangenoma de una especie puede ser abierto, cuando va creciendo cada vez que se adicionan cepas al estudio, o cerrado, cuando el genoma de un número reducido de cepas es suficiente para definir la especie (Medini et al. 2005).

El uso de esta nueva tecnología ha promovido la formulación de nuevos puntos de corte para delimitar especies. El más utilizado es la **identidad nucleotídica promedio (ANI**, por sus siglas en inglés). ANI representa un valor de identidad y similitud entre regiones homólogas compartidas por genomas y se ha definido con base en el punto de corte de la hibridación ADN-

ADN, donde el 70% de la hibridación equivale al 95% del valor ANI (Richter and Rossello-Mora 2009).

3. Planteamiento del problema

Entre las limitaciones principales de las investigaciones llevadas a cabo en este campo, se encuentran, por un lado, el escaso conocimiento de los ambientes naturales y, por el otro, las deficiencias en los métodos para lograr una clasificación correcta de las especies bacterianas.

No se ha prestado suficiente atención a la dimensión ambiental del problema de la resistencia esto se debe a que los estudios se han basado primordialmente en los ambientes clínicos, con la idea de que la selección de bacterias resistentes solo ocurre en estos entornos. Nosotros proponemos que la contaminación antropogénica, en especial las aguas residuales con contaminación fecal, que llevan bacterias enriquecidas en determinantes de resistencia, al ser liberadas y mezclarse en los ambientes naturales con las bacterias nativas propician su diseminación fuera de los hospitales.

La clasificación incorrecta de especies se debe, en parte, al sesgo derivado del uso de equipos automatizados que carecen de la resolución adecuada para diferenciarlas, a que los estudios suelen basarse en una sola cepa, al uso de marcadores no adecuados o el uso de uno o pocos marcadores, así como la utilización de metodología de análisis de secuencias multilocus (MLSA, por sus siglas en inglés) no adecuada.

El problema que encaramos en este trabajo, por lo tanto, tiene dos vertientes: En primer lugar, el impacto que tiene la liberación de bacterias, antibióticos y genes de resistencia en el ambiente, principalmente a través de las aguas residuales, que contribuye al intercambio genético y la selección de cepas multirresistentes. En segundo lugar, el impacto de la incorrecta delimitación de las especies bacterianas, que impide establecer las asociaciones pertinentes entre fenotipos y especies bacterianas para poder encontrar aquellas que verdaderamente sean resistentes o sensibles y ubicarlas en un hábitat determinado. Delimitaciones robustas, fidedignas de las especies y un conocimiento profundo de sus fenotipos es clave para su uso potencial en agricultura, y biotecnología, en particular de aquellas cepas que suponen la liberación al ambiente.

Con base en lo anterior, el punto de partida de nuestra investigación fueron estas preguntas:

1. ¿Existen diferencias entre los resistomas de las proteobacterias de un mismo género o especie asociadas a ríos limpios y de aquellas provenientes de ríos contaminados?

- 2. ¿El número de resistencias y de elementos genéticos móviles de las poblaciones de bacterias recuperadas de ríos contaminados es mayor al de aquellas que provienen de ríos limpios?
- 3. ¿Existe una relación entre el flujo de genes de resistencia a antibióticos entre especies y la calidad ambiental de su hábitat?

4. Hipótesis

La liberación al ambiente de aguas residuales con cepas bacterianas altamente enriquecidas en determinantes de resistencia propiciará la transferencia de los mismos a las bacterias nativas de los hábitats naturales y moldeando sus resistomas en tres niveles: comunidad, especie e individuo.

4.1 Predicciones de la hipótesis

- 1. Las comunidades bacterianas con mayor cantidad de resistencias a los antibióticos se recuperarán de sitios con alto grado de contaminación.
- 2. Se encontrará una mayor cantidad de elementos genéticos móviles en las comunidades provenientes de sitios con alto grado de contaminación.
- 3. A nivel de especie, habrá cepas con mayor cantidad de resistencias a antibióticos en lugares contaminados.

5. Objetivo general

Caracterizar fenotípicamente el resistoma de cepas de proteobacterias recuperadas de ríos de Morelos con grado contrastante de contaminación antropogénica y delimitar especies mediante métodos filogenéticos avanzados para determinar asociaciones con sus perfiles de resistencia a múltiples antibióticos.

5.1 Objetivos particulares

- Hacer prospecciones de campo para localizar sitios adecuados de muestreo (limpios y contaminados)
- 2. Generar colecciones amplias de proteobacterias prevenientes de cuerpos de agua con grado contrastante de contaminación y determinar su fenotipo de resistencia
- 3. Clasificar las bacterias recuperadas a nivel de género mediante secuenciación de 16S ribosomales

- 4. Con base en los primeros objetivos, seleccionar dos géneros con amplia distribución ambiental y relevancia clínica para estudios detallados
- Caracterizar la diversidad y la estructura genética de las poblaciones mediante análisis multilocus de secuencias
- 6. Delimitar las especies bacterianas de interés mediante métodos filogenéticos y de genética de poblaciones
- 7. Asociar los perfiles de resistencia antimicrobiana con las especies de interés mediante análisis estadístico multivariado
- 8. Caracterizar los elementos genéticos móviles de las especies de interés
- 9. Secuenciar los genomas completos de algunas cepas selectas de interés
- Evaluar críticamente el status de la clasificación de la sistemática y taxonomía de los géneros focales de este trabajo

6. Diseño experimental

Para cumplir con los objetivos del estudio se propuso el siguiente diseño general:

- Elección de los sitios de muestreo con el fin de identificar sitios con un grado de contaminación contrastante y acceso adecuado para la toma de muestras (Figura 1A y 1B).
- Muestreo de comunidades bacterianas en dos sitios de tres ríos con grado contrastante de contaminación antropogénica, tanto en columna de agua como de sedimentos (Figura 1A y 1B).
- 3. Identificación empírica de medios de cultivo adecuados para recuperar las proteobacterias de interés para el estudio.
- 4. Generación de la colección de poblaciones bacterianas y determinación del género bacteriano mediante la amplificación del gen 16s.
- 5. Determinación de los perfiles de resistencia antimicrobiana correspondientes a 15 antibióticos de 5 familias y evaluación de metalo- β -lactamasas (**MBL**) y β -lactamasas (**BLEE**) mediante sinergismo de doble disco.
- 6. Selección de dos géneros de interés debido a su presencia cosmopolita (sitio y hábitat), su perfil de multirresistencia y su relevancia clínica (*Stenotrophomonas* y *Acinetobacter*).
- 7. Generación de datos multilocus de secuencia.
- 8. Análisis filogenético y de genética de poblaciones de los datos obtenidos mediante MLSA.
- 9. Validación y refinamiento de la delimitación de las especies bacterianas de cada población mediante aproximaciones filogenómicas.
- 10. Evaluación estadística de asociaciones entre fenotipos de resistencias y los linajes.
- 11. Análisis de las propiedades fenotípicas y ecológicas de los linajes identificados en las dos poblaciones.

Capítulo 1. Prospección de la diversidad y de los perfiles de resistencia de las proteobacterias ambientales

Con el fin de poder responder nuestras preguntas de investigación y de lograr que nuestro estudio tuviera una representatividad estadística sólida, que sustente nuestros resultados, llevamos a cabo tres muestreos durante la misma estación en tres años diferentes en dos tipos de sitios (contaminados y limpios) y seis puntos de muestreo (Tabla 1).

El primer paso del estudio consistió en la toma de muestras de columna de agua y sedimentos de los ríos contaminados y limpios de Morelos **Figura 1A, 1B y 1C**. Los sitios de muestreo se clasificaron en tres niveles de contaminación, de acuerdo al conteo de coliformes fecales termotolerantes y de *E. coli*: **contaminación baja** (Sauces y Estacas), **contaminación intermedia** (Yautepec) y **contaminación alta** (Temixco y Zacatepec) **(Tabla 1)**.

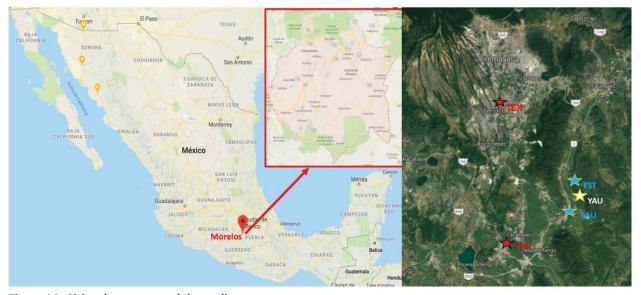


Figura 1A. Sitios de muestreo del estudio

Ubicación del estado de Morelos donde se recolectaron las muestras de columna de agua y de sedimento.

Figura 1B. Localización de los cinco puntos de muestreo

Estacas (EST), Sauces (SAU), Yautepec (YAU), Zacatepec (ZAC) y Temixco (TEX). Rojo = contaminación alta. Blanco = contaminación intermedia. Azul = contaminación baja.



Figura 1C. Aspecto de los cinco puntos de muestreo

Tabla 1. Clasificación de los sitios de muestreo basada en los niveles de conteo de coliformes fecales termotolerantes (TTFCs) y *E. coli* termotolerante (TTEc) unidades formadoras de colonia (cfu/100ml), medidas en la columna de agua

| River | Site name | Code | Coordinates ^a | TTFCsb | TTEcc | Pol.level ^d |
|----------|---------------------------|------|---------------------------|--------|-------|------------------------|
| Apatlaco | Temixco | TEX | 18°51′14.4″N 99°13′20.4″W | 5.66e5 | 3.6e5 | Н |
| Apatlaco | Zacatepec | ZAC | 18°38′23.4″N 99°11′44.5″W | 5.34e5 | 3.2e5 | Н |
| Sauces | Los Sauces (river) | SAU | 18°41′50.0″N 99°07′45.7″W | 240 | 97 | L |
| Sauces | Los Sauces (flooded soil) | SAUr | 18°41′50.0″N 99°07′45.7″W | 966 | 166 | L |
| Estacas | Las Estacas | EST | 18°43'57.5"N 99°06'48.3"W | 83 | 17 | L |
| Yautepec | Bonifiacio García | YAU | 18°43'24.0"N 99°06'53.3"W | 1.96e3 | 833 | 1 |

Puesto que nuestro interés en este trabajo era hacer asociaciones de fenotipo con genotipo, fue indispensable contar con bacterias cultivables. Para ello utilizamos diferentes medios de cultivo, con y sin antibióticos.

Para identificar medios adecuados de cultivo, se evaluaron dos tipos de medios: oligotróficos, o mínimos con respecto a la concentración de nutrientes, y ricos en nutrientes. Los dos medios oligotróficos que elegimos fueron los siguientes: R2A (Ultee et al. 2004) y NAA (Aagot et al. 2001). Los medios ricos que usamos incluyeron medios específicos, entre los que se cuentan los medios tradicionales para el conteo de coliformes fecales: mFC (Oxoid) y m-TEC (USEPA, 2002); el medio selectivo para recuperar *Acinetobacter* (Leeds modificado), el medio para microorganismos Gram negativos y entéricos (MacConkey) y el medio PCA. Los medios se suplementaron con antibióticos. Recetas de medios de cultivo implementados en este estudio y las combinaciones con antibióticos se pueden ver en el **Anexo 13**. Los géneros que se recuperaron con mayor eficiencia en los diferentes medios son: *Pseudomonas, Stenotrophomonas, Aeromonas, Ochrobactrum y Acinetobacter*. Cabe destacar que el género *Ensifer* se recuperó con mayor eficiencia en medios suplementados con ceftazidima (**Figura 2**).

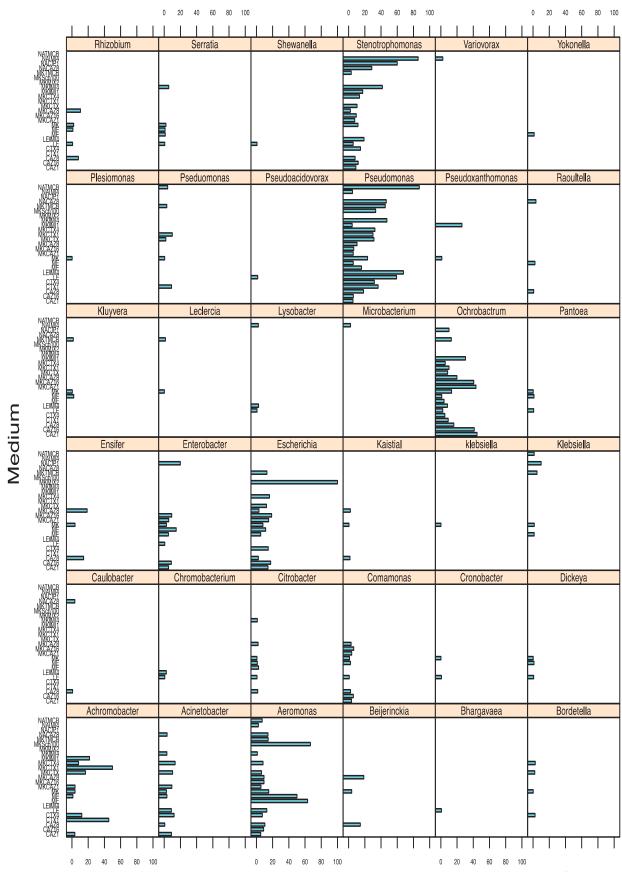


Figura 2. Porcentaje de eficiencia de los medios utilizados en este estudio para recuperar diferentes géneros Medios de cultivo: NA= NAA, MK=MacConkey, LE= Leed. Antibióticos: TMCB= trimetoprim + carbenicilina, IMI=imipenem, CIP= ciprofloxacino, CAZ=ceftazidima, CTX=cefotaxima.

Así, recuperamos una amplia colección de aislamientos (n = 800), que se clasificaron a nivel de género mediante análisis filogenético de secuencias parciales de 16S rRNA, usando como secuencias de referencia las cepas tipo de la base de datos RDP-II. Los géneros más abundantes fueron los siguientes: *Pseudomonas* (n = 239, 34.3%) y *Stenotrophomonas* (n = 154, 22.1%), seguidos por *Aeromonas* (n = 135,19.4%), *Ochrobactrum* (n = 74, 10.6%) y *Acinetobacter* (n = 39, 5.6%) (**Figura 3**).

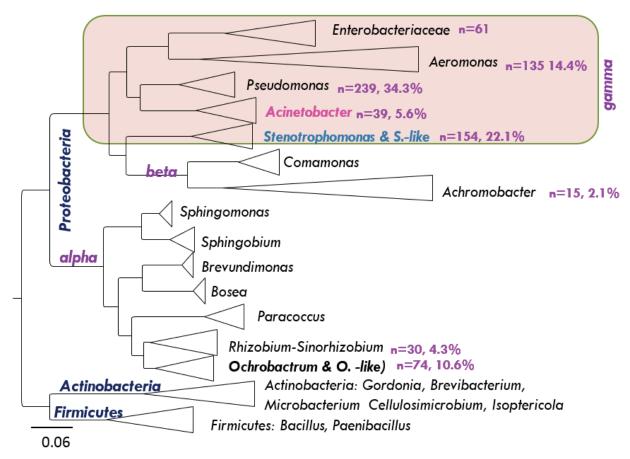


Figura 3. Desglose taxonómico a nivel de género de 800 secuencias de 16S RNAFilogenia de máxima verosimilitud (GTR + G) para clasificar a nivel de género las 800 secuencias de 16S rRNA generadas en este trabajo a partir de aislados ambientales de ríos de Morelos.

Mediante el análisis estadístico, pudimos observar la eficiencia relativa de los diferentes medios microbiológicos probados y de los antibióticos con los que se suplementaron para recuperar diferentes géneros de proteobacterias. Encontramos que *Stenotrophomonas* ambientales pueden recuperarse eficientemente en el medio oligotrófico NAA suplementado con imipenem (8μg/ml; > 90% eficiencia) y en el medio rico McConkey suplementado con imipenem (4μg/ml). Cuando se seleccionaron las colonias no fermentadoras (blancas), el segundo medio de cultivo tuvo un éxito del 60% para *Stenotrophomonas* para las cuales, hasta el momento, no se había identificado un medio específico de aislamiento. En este trabajo

logramos, por primera vez, recuperar con eficiencia una cantidad considerable (n = 154) de aislamientos de *Stenotrophomonas* ambientales.

Para cerciorarnos de que verdaderamente estábamos recuperando bacterias multirresistentes, los microrganismos se picaron en cajas suplementadas con doce antibióticos diferentes, correspondientes a cinco familias (fenoles, betalactámicos, aminoglucósidos, fluoroquinolonas y tetraciclinas) y 3 combinaciones de antibióticos: Mix1 (tetraciclina 16ug, gentamicina 6μg, trimetroprim 30 μg, ceftazidima 1μg, ciprofloxacino 4μg), Mix2 (gentamicina 6μg y ácido nalidíxico) y TmCb (trimetroprim + carbenicilina 30/100 μg). Mediante un análisis de clustering jerárquico de los perfiles de resistencia, pudimos observar diferencias en dos niveles: Primero, con respecto al hábitat, advertimos que las bacterias provenientes de los sedimentos (nativas) se agrupaban debido a que tenían la mayor cantidad de resistencias, mientras que aquellas provenientes de columna de agua (transitorias) se agrupaban debido a que tenían la menor cantidad de resistencias. Segundo, con respecto al género bacteriano, notamos que las bacterias multirresistentes de los sedimentos correspondían a los géneros *Stenotrophomonas*, *Ochrobactrum*, y *Acinetobacter*, mientras que las bacterias acuáticas con menor cantidad de resistencias correspondían al género *Pseudomonas* y a los géneros clasificados como Enterobacterias (ver **Figura 4**).

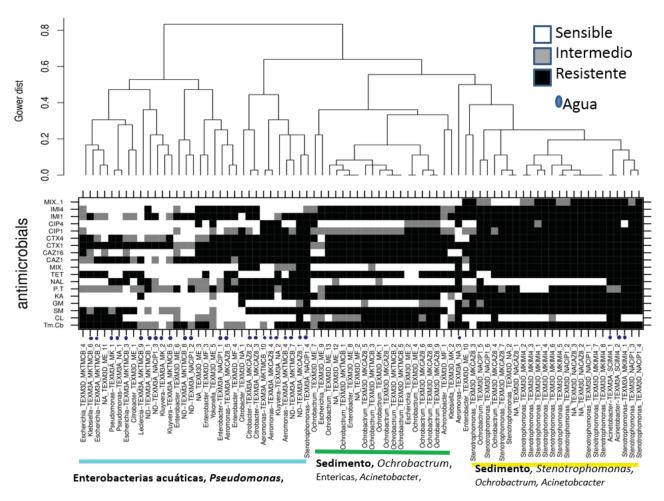


Figura 4. Análisis de *clustering* jerárquico de perfiles de resistencia a antibióticos correspondientes a los aislamientos de agua y sedimentos el río Apatlaco (Temixco; muestreo realizado en mayo de 2013)

Grupo I. Enterobacterias acuáticas *Pseudomonas*; poco resistentes. Grupo II. Bacterias entéricas, *Ochrobactrum* y *Acinetobacter*: resistentes y multirresistentes. Grupo III. *Stenotrophomonas, Ochrobactrum* y *Acinetobacter*: **multirresistentes** y **panresistentes**. Antibióticos: MIX 1. Combinación de cinco antibióticos, (tetraciclina 16ug, gentamicina 6μg, trimetroprim 30 μg, ceftazidima 1μg, ciprofloxacino 4μg), IMI4: imipenem 4μg, IMI1: imipenem 1μg, CIP4: ciprofloxacino 4μg, CIP1: ciprofloxacino 1μg, CTX4: cefotaxima 4μg, CTX1: cefotaxima 1μg, CAZ16: ceftazidima 16 μg, CAZ1: ceftazidima 1μg, MIX2: gentamicina 6μg y ácido nalidíxico 30 TET: tetraciclina 16 μg, NAL: Ácido nalidíxico 30μg, P.T. Piperacilina+ tazobactam 128/4μg, KA: kanamicina 16μg, GM: gentamicina 16μg, SM: estreptomicina 30μg, CL: cloranfenicol 16μg, Tm.Cb: trimetroprim + carbenicilina 30/100 μg. Los círculos azules corresponden a las bacterias que se recuperaron de columna de agua (predominantes en el Grupo I).

Con base en la información obtenida y tomando en cuenta nuestro interés por los microorganismos de amplia distribución ambiental, multirresistentes y de interés clínico, elegimos los géneros *Stenotrophomonas* y *Acinetobacter* para estudiarlos en detalle (capítulos 2 y 3, respectivamente). En conclusión, el diseño experimental que propusimos nos permitió generar colecciones con una amplia diversidad de géneros de proteobacterias. Esta diversidad nos permitió hacer asociaciones entre los géneros y su perfil de resistencia. Además, como suele suceder en la mayoría de las exploraciones ambientales (Vásquez-Ponce et al. 2018; Schmidt et al. 2018; Arocha-Garza et al. 2017), descubrimos nuevos linajes bacterianos, a los cuales nos referiremos más adelante

Capítulo 2. Stenotrophomonas

Este es el capítulo principal de la tesis y corresponde a la publicación de Ochoa-Sánchez LE & Vinuesa P., 2017. Además, se incluye información adicional: los resultados de un análisis de filogenia genómica (Vinuesa et al., 2018), la caracterización de elementos genéticos móviles, y la identificación automatizada de especies del género.

2.1 Antecedentes: Microbiología, epidemiología y taxonomía del género Uno de los géneros bacterianos emergentes más multifacéticos son las *Stenotrophomonas* (de stenus = limitado, trophus = nutrición, monas = unidad). En un principio, se consideró que pertenecían al género *Pseudomonas* (Stanier R. et al., 1966). Luego fueron clasificadas como *Xanthomonas* y posteriormente con base en análisis filogenéticos de secuencias 16S rRNA, se reveló que tenían características diferentes y constituían un género hermano de *Xanthomonas*.

Tabla 2. Taxonomía del género Stenotrophomonas

| Dominio | Bacteria (Woese, Kandler, and Wheelis 1990) |
|-------------------|--|
| Filo | Proteobacteria (Garrity and Lilburn 2005) |
| Clase | Gammaproteobacteria (Garrity and Lilburn 2005) |
| Orden | Xanthomonas (Saddler & Bradbury 2005) |
| Familia | Xanthomonadaceae (Saddler & Bradbury 2005) |
| Género | Stenotrophomonas (Palleroni and Bradbury 1993) |
| Especie principal | Stenotrophomonas maltophilia (Palleroni and Bradbury 1993) |

En la actualidad se han descrito 16 especies (http://www.bacterio.net/stenotrophomonas.html) válidas del género *Stenotrophomonas*. Se han aislado 11 especies diferentes a partir de diversas fuentes ambientales y una, de muestras clínicas humanas (**Anexo 6**).

Las bacterias del género *Stenotrophomonas* se han detectado en un amplio rango de ecosistemas. Tienen una capacidad de degradación importante, así como potencial para aplicaciones biotecnológicas (biorremediación, promoción de crecimiento, biocontrol y actividad antimicrobiana) (Ryan et al. 2009; Berg and Martinez 2015). Se caracterizan por ser bacilos Gram negativo, aerobios, no esporuladores, de entre 0.5 y 1.5 µm, mótiles (con varios flagelos polares), capaces de producir fimbrias y de persistir en ambientes acuosos pobres en nutrientes (Brooke, 2012, 2017) (Hugh and Leifson 1963). Las colonias son lisas, brillantes, con márgenes enteros, y de color blanco, gris, o amarillo pálido. Su espectro nutricional es limitado: De 145 compuestos orgánicos probados como fuentes de carbono y energía, solo 23 fueron utilizados por bacterias del género para su crecimiento (Stanier R. et al., 1966).

Estudios fenotípicos y genotípicos, además de análisis de diversidad ecológica y metabólica, han mostrado que existe una diferenciación a nivel de especie (Denton and Kerr 1998a). Si bien *Stenotrophomonas spp.* son microorganismos ubicuos en el ambiente, *S. maltophilia* es el miembro dominante de esta comunidad microbiana y sobre el cual se han realizado diversos estudios. Con respecto a la taxonomía del género, se han utilizado diferentes metodologías y análisis (ver **Anexo 7**), a través de los cuales no se ha logrado una delimitación de especies satisfactoria. Ello se refleja en el hecho de que *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* se considere como un complejo de especies con características fenotípicas (resistencia a los antibióticos) muy variables (Deredjian et al. 2016).

Los estudios genómicos del género se han basado principalmente en cepas con fenotipo de multirresistencia a antibióticos, como *S. maltophilia* K279 aislada a partir de una muestra de sangre de un paciente con cáncer. Esta multirresistencia se explica por la presencia de dos factores principales: 1) los genes de resistencia a diferentes familias de antibióticos (aminoglucósidos, espectinomicina, cloranfenicol y β-lactámicos) y 2) las bombas de eflujo,* de las cuales la familia RND solo se encuentra en bacterias Gram-negativas. En *S. maltophilia* destaca la bomba tripartita SmeDEF (Sánchez, Morelo et al., 2005). Otras cepas importantes para los estudios genómicos han sido *S. maltophilia* R551-3, aislada a partir del álamo *Populus trichocarpa*, y *S. rhizophila* DSM14405, aislada de la rizosfera del nabo en Alemania (Wolf et al. 2002) (Anexo 8).

La especie de mayor relevancia clínica es *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia*. Ello se debe a que es un patógeno oportunista emergente y resistente a múltiples antibióticos. Es la única especie del género reportada como causa de infecciones en humanos. Se caracteriza por ser un microorganismo cosmopolita y se ha recuperado de ambientes clínicos y no clínicos, como agua, suelo y plantas (Brooke 2012).

Las infecciones más comunes asociadas con *S. maltophilia* incluyen: neumonía en personas con enfermedad pulmonar obstructiva crónica (Nseir, Di Pompeo et al. 2006); sepsis biliar (Papadakis et al. 1995); infecciones de huesos, del tracto urinario, de los tejidos suaves (Papadakis et al. 1995) (Sakhnini, Weissmann et al. 2002; Landrum, Conger et al. 2005; Bin Abdulhak, Zimmerman et al. 2009), de los ojos (Lin, Ma et al.; Mauger, Kuennen et al.);

RND (resistance nodulation cell division) (Piddock 2006; Pole 2007).

^{*} De acuerdo a su composición, al número de regiones transmembrana y a las fuentes de energía y sustratos, las bombas de eflujo se clasifican en cinco familias: MFS (major facilitator superfamily), ABC (adenosine-trifosphate-binding cassette superfamily), SMR (small multidru-resistance), MATE (multidrug and toxic compound extrusion), y

endocarditis (Katayama, Tsuruya et al.; Gutierrez Rodero, Masia et al. 1996; Aydin, Koksal et al. 2000), y meningitis (Nguyen and Muder 1994; Rojas, Garcia et al. 2009, Book et al., 2017).

El factor principal que determina que *S. maltophilia* sea patógena es su notable habilidad para producir un amplio rango de enzimas extracelulares, tales como lipasas, fibrolisinas y proteasas, potencialmente involucradas en los procesos de colonización (Denton and Kerr 1998b). *S. maltophilia* es un patógeno de baja virulencia. Ha emergido en ambientes nosocomiales, asociado con tasas de mortalidad bruta de entre 14% y 69% en pacientes con bacteremia, debido principalmente a su multirresistencia a los antibióticos.

S. maltophilia codifica intrínsecamente dos β-lactamasas: L1, β-lactamasa clase B (metalo-β-lactamasa) (T. R. Walsh, MacGowan, and Bennett 1997) y L2, una β-lactamasa clase A (cefalosporinasa sensible a ácido clavulánico) (T. R. Walsh, MacGowan, and Bennett 1997). La metalo-β-lactamasa L1 producida por S. maltophilia hidroliza predominantemente las penicilinas y los carbapenémicos (T. R. Walsh, MacGowan, and Bennett 1997). Esta enzima es resistente a los inhibidores comerciales de β-lactamasas y susceptible a la inhibición ocasionada por agentes quelantes. Un estudio de 17 aislamientos clínicos y nueve aislamientos ambientales de S. maltophilia ha sugerido que la exposición a antibióticos carbapenémicos es un factor de selección para la sobreexpresión de L1 (Denton and Kerr 1998b). También se ha propuesto que S. maltophilia tiene la habilidad de mantener la producción de β-lactamasa incluso en ambientes con cambio de pH, lo cual se correlaciona con los diversos lugares de donde se ha aislado. La cefalosporinasa L2 producida por S. maltophilia hidroliza predominantemente cefalosporinas y aztreonam (T. R. Walsh, MacGowan, and Bennett 1997) y su sitio activo es una serina. L2 puede ser inhibida por ácido clavulánico, tazobactam y sulbactam.

Afortunadamente los genes que codifican L1 y L2 no son fácilmente transferibles (T. R. Walsh, MacGowan, and Bennett 1997). Sin embargo, se ha identificado que los elementos que movilizan el resistoma de *Stenotrophomonas* son los elementos integrativos conjugativos (**ICE**, por sus siglas en inglés), los **integrones**. Estos juegan un papel importante debido a que se desplazan entre el ambiente hospitalario y el extrahospitalario, diseminando los genes de resistencia.

Los ICE son conocidos como portadores de genes de resistencia a antibióticos. El primer ICE que se describió fue Tn916, que confiere resistencia a tetraciclina (Franke and Clewell 1981) y tiene un rango amplio de hospedero.

Los integrones se definen como plataformas de ensamble, o sea, elementos de DNA que pueden adquirir marcos de lectura abiertos, insertar casetes de genes exógenos y convertirlos en genes funcionales asegurando su correcta expresión (Cambray, Guerout, and Mazel 2010). En este género, solo se han detectado integrones en *S. maltophilia*. En un estudio, su prevalencia fue del 60% en aislamientos hospitalarios (en los que se observó que las cepas que los contenían eran significativamente más resistentes a antibióticos) y ninguno estaba contenido en plásmidos (Liaw, Lee, and Hsueh 2010). En cambio, en otro estudio su prevalencia fue del 22% y fue interesante observar que dos aislamientos contenían integrones vacíos y, además, un integrón estaba contenido en un plásmido (Chang et al. 2004). En contraste con ambos, en Argentina se han reportado integrones en *S. maltophilia* con una prevalencia del 1% (Barbolla R, Catalano M, Orman BE, Famiglietti A, Vay C, Smayevsky J 2004).

Aunque hay autores que proponen que, dado que los integrones tienen una prevalencia baja en el género *Stenotrophomonas*, son los plásmidos y los ICE los que juegan un papel importante en la transferencia horizontal (Thomas and Nielsen 2005). Sin embargo, es importante enfatizar que son muy pocos los estudios que identifican plásmidos en el género y ningún genoma completo de las bases de datos muestran plásmidos.

2.2 Objetivos

- Delimitar especies en la colección de aislamientos ambientales de Stenotrophomonas mediante el uso de métodos filogenéticos y de genética de poblaciones usando datos multilocus
- II. Realizar una filogenia genómica a partir de cepas selectas de *Stenotrophomonas* ambientales
- III. Analizar si los linajes muestran propiedades fenotípicas y ecológicas distintivas
- IV. Analizar cepas de Stenotrophomonas pertenecientes a la colección del estudio,
 secuenciadas mediante métodos comerciales de identificación

2.3 Resultados

Los resultados presentados en esta sección corresponden, en su mayoría, a los publicados por Ochoa-Sánchez LE & Vinuesa P. 2017 en *Frontiers in Microbiology*. Esta sección solo es un resumen de los datos publicados. En el artículo se exponen los detalles metodológicos (Ver Anexo 1).

- 2.3.1 Delimitación de especies de la colección de aislamientos ambientales de *Stenotrophomonas*
- 2.3.1.1 Estructura filogenética del género *Stenotrophomonas*: Identificación de ocho especies, entre las cuales destaca_*S. maltophilia*_y definición de hipótesis de bordes de especies

Se utilizó un método de máxima verosimilitud (ML) para buscar los árboles filogenéticos y obtener la hipótesis global de la estructura filogenética del género con base en 194 multilocus STs no redundantes (Figura 5). En el presente trabajo se generaron las secuencias para los siete *loci* del esquema de MLST para *S. maltophilia* disponible en pubmlst.org de los 108 aislamientos de *Stenotrophomonas* ambientales, que comprenden 63 haplotipos. La mejor hipótesis, resultante de 1,001 búsquedas de árboles independientes, se presenta en la Figura 5A. Encontramos una cepa relacionada con *Stenotrophomonas humi*, tres de *Stenotrophomonas acidaminiphila* (se cuenta con la secuencia del genoma completo de una de ellas: ZAC14D2_NAIMI4_2 (Vinuesa and Ochoa-Sánchez 2015) y siete cepas cercanas a *Stenotrophomonas terrae*. El clado Smc (complejo de *S. maltophilia*) aparece en forma colapsada. El árbol se enraizó usando *Xanthomonas* como grupo externo.

En la **Figura 5B**, aparece el complejo *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* (Smc) con sus grupos filogenéticos delimitados. La mayor parte de nuestros aislamientos se agrupan en este complejo, que comprende a *S. maltophilia sensu lato* (Smsl) y a otros cuatro clados que denominamos (Smc1, Smc2, Smc3, Smc4). Nuestros análisis sugieren fuertemente que estos últimos cuatro corresponden a especies crípticas pertenecientes a este complejo.

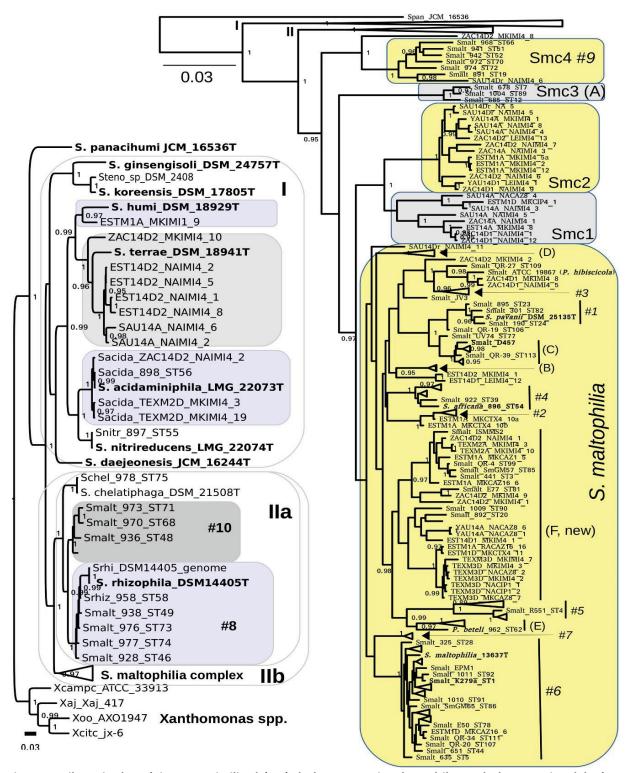


Figura 5. Filogenia de máxima verosimilitud (ML) de las secuencias de multilocus de las especies del género Stenotrophomonas

Según modelo GTR+G y usando el alineamiento concatenado (7 loci) de 194 ST no redundantes. Los clados están etiquetados utilizando los códigos de la A a la E de Kaiser et al., 2009 y del #1 al #10 de Hauben et al., 1999, para una referencia cruzada fácil. A. Árbol de las especies no *maltophilia*. El clado I incluye nuestras cepas, correspondientes a la especie *S. humi*, al complejo *S. terrae*, y a la especie *S. acidaminiphila*. El clado incluye dos especies muy significativas del género (*S. chelatiphaga* y *S. rhizophila*). El clado Ilb corresponde al complejo *S. maltophilia* (Smc) y aparece colapsado. Las cepas tipo aparecen en negritas. El genotipo #10 representa una especie no descrita, que no debería fusionarse con el clado de *S. rhizophila* #8. B. Clado abierto del complejo *S. maltophilia* (Smc), que incluye *S. maltophilia* sensu lato (Smsl), Smc1, Smc2, Smc3, Smc4. Las áreas sombreadas indican la asignación de especie según la hipótesis de nuestro trabajo, bajo el modelo coalescente multiespecies, utilizando el factor de Bayes y un análisis de genética de poblaciones.

2.3.1.2 Delimitación de especies en el complejo *S. maltophilia* (*S. maltophilia* sensu stricto y cuatro nuevas especies) mediante la delimitación bayesiana basada en el coalescente multiespecies y análisis de factores de Bayes

La evidencia de este análisis filogenético se usó para definir diversas hipótesis de límites de especies, las cuales se evaluaron formalmente en un marco bayesiano, bajo el modelo de coalescencia multiespecies (MSC) (Ranala y Yang, 2003, Edwards et al., 2007; Degnan y Rosenberg, 2009). Además, las hipótesis a análisis de factor de Bayes (BF) (Kass y Raftery, 1995).

Hasta donde sabemos, este es el primer estudio que evalúa la utilidad de este marco estadístico bayesiano para la delimitación de especies bacterianas. Este método se está perfilando como una estrategia exitosa y prometedora para la delimitación de especies en plantas y animales (Fujita et al., 2012; Aydin et al., 2014; Grummer et al., 2014).

El modelo MSC es independiente de la concatenación de genes y reconoce el hecho de que los árboles de genes tienen historias evolutivas separadas pero integradas dentro de un árbol de especies compartido (Degnan y Rosenberg, 2006; Rosenberg, 2013). El modelo básico de MSC asume que la discordancia de los árboles genéticos es únicamente el resultado de la coalescencia estocástica de los linajes genéticos dentro de la filogenia de una especie. Las poblaciones, más que los alelos individuales, constituyen las unidades para inferir la filogenia en el marco del MSC. Este modelo conecta eficazmente la inferencia filogenética tradicional con la genética de poblaciones, y proporciona estimaciones de topología, tiempos de divergencia y tamaños de población (Rannala y Yang, 2003; Edwards et al., 2007; Heled and Drummond, 2010).

El análisis del factor de Bayes respalda fuertemente la hipótesis de delimitación de especies presentada en la Figura 5B. Utilizamos divisiones conservadoras dentro del complejo *S. maltophilia* (**Tabla 2**). Smc1 y Smc2 corresponden a *Stenotrophomonas* ambientales de México recuperadas solo en este estudio.

Tabla 3. Análisis de factor de Bayes para la hipótesis de delimitación de cinco especies dentro del complejo *S. maltophilia*, más los genogrupos #8 y #10, basados en las probabilidades marginales calculadas para cada hipótesis por nuestra vía de muestreo

| Species model ^a | marginal InL estimate | Model rank | In-BF ^b (vs. best) | In-BF ^c (vs. previous) | | |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------|-------------------------------|-----------------------------------|--|--|
| split1 | -31347.16515 | 1 (best) | NA | NA | | |
| lump_Smal+Smc1 | -31384.34206 | 2 | 4.308835** | 4.308835** (2 vs. 1) | | |
| lump_Smal +Smc12 | -31498.71633 | 3 | 5.714071*** | 5.432623*** (3 vs. 2) | | |
| lump_Smal +Smc123 | -31521.18269 | 4 | 5.852303*** | 3.805166** (4 vs. 3) | | |
| lump_Smal +Smc1234 | -31593.24923 | 5 | 6.19882*** | 4.970737** (5 vs. 4) | | |

^a El mejor modelo (split1) supone que el genogrupo #10 es un clado hermano de *S. rhizophila* (Figura 5A) y divide el Smc en *S. matophilia* (Smal) y cuatro clados de especies adicionales (Smc1-Smc4) de acuerdo a la Figura 5B. Los siguientes modelos agrupan consecutivamente el clado *S. maltophilia* con los clados Smc1-Smc4, con lump_Smal+Smc1234 que representa todo el complejo de S. maltophilia como una sola especie. El InL marginal para el modelo lump_clades_ #8 + #10es -31465.00904, lo que resulta en un In-BF = 5.462508 cuando se compara con el modelo Split 1 (mejor). ^b Los factores In-Bayes están calculados en función de las estimaciones de verosimilitud marginal In-BF = log(2(M0-M1)), donde M0 es el mejor modelo (modelo 1), que se compara con cada uno de los siguientes. * Indica soporte positivo [In (BF) es n el rango de 1.1-3]; indica un soporte fuerte [In (BF) es n el rango de 3-5]; *** indica apoyo fuerte [In (BF) es n el rango de 5]. ^c Los factores de Bayes se calculan como se describió anteriormente, pero implican a M0 como el modelo anterior al modelo M1 de la lista de modelos clasificados. NA=no aplica.

2.3.1.3 Análisis de la estructura genética de las poblaciones ambientales del complejo S. maltophilia

Con un valor conservador de K = 4, nuestro análisis muestra evidencia de una subestructura que aparece entre *S. maltophilia sensu lato* y los clados Smc1, Smc2 y Smc4 (**Figura 6**). Los linajes Smc1, Smc2 y Smsl están genéticamente diferenciados entre sí (rango 9 - 45) y la divergencia de las poblaciones (Dxy) es superior al 4.5% (**Tabla 3**). El alto índice de fijación (rango 0.43 - 0.59) denota una diferenciación marcada entre las poblaciones. Esto es consistente con los números bajos de migrantes efectivos (rango 0.34 - 0.66) que se estimaron en la generación. Esto indica un flujo genético limitado entre estos linajes. Asimismo, los índices G y NI indican diferencias de fijación entre las especies, debidas a diferencias no-sinónimas. Esto sugiere que la selección positiva puede estar conduciendo a la divergencia de especies.

Tabla 4. Pruebas de neutralidad McDonald-Kreitman (MK), diferenciación genética y estimaciones de flujo genético entre aislamientos ambientales de los linajes Smc1, Smc2 y *S. maltophilia* recuperados de ríos Mexicanos basado en el conjunto de datos concatenado (3591 sitios)

| Lineages | No. Fixed diffs. | Dxy | aK ST | F _{ST} | Nm | NI | G | ^b p-value |
|-----------|------------------|---------|------------|-----------------|------|-------|-------|----------------------|
| Smc1-Smc2 | 45 | 0.04616 | 0.13791*** | 0.57819 | 0.36 | 0.328 | 6.709 | 0.00959** |
| Smc1-Smal | 9 | 0.04542 | 0.06654*** | 0.43022 | 0.66 | 0.247 | 3.133 | 0.07672 |
| Smc2-Smal | 28 | 0.04924 | 0.09508*** | 0.59384 | 0.34 | 0.312 | 6.020 | 0.02515* |

Dxy es la distancia genética interpoblacional. K* $_{ST}$ es el índice de Hudson de diferenciación genética de la población. FST es el índice de fijación. Nm representa el número de migrantes por generación. NI es el índice de neutralidad y G es la razón de verosimilitud o prueba G de independencia. a El significado de la estadística estimada se calculó usando la prueba de permutación con 10000 iteraciones. Valores de bp para la prueba G. * Valor p<0.05; ** valor p<0.01; *** valor de p<0.001.

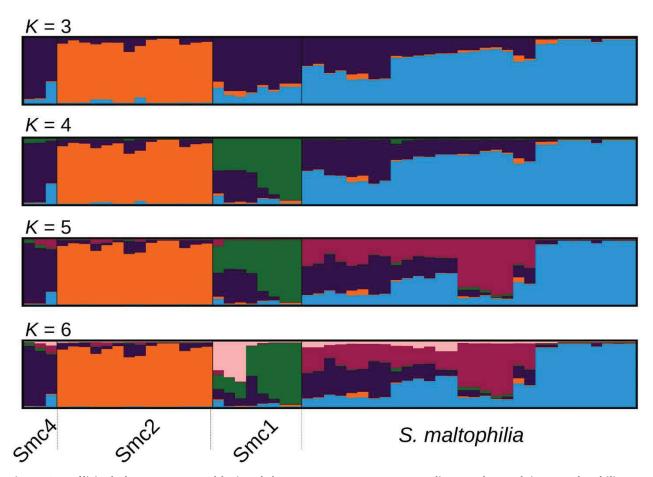


Figura 6. Análisis de la estructura poblacional de nuestras cepas, correspondientes al complejo *S. maltophilia* a Smc1, a Smc2 y a Smc4

Las barras se alinearon óptimamente mediante el programa STRUCTURE para los valores indicados de K. Se muestran las proporciones de ancestría de cada individuo.

2.3.1.4 Determinación de los polimorfismos de ADN y las tasas de recombinación en poblaciones ambientales Smc y Sterr

De acuerdo con el análisis estadístico descriptivo básico de polimorfismos de ADN, se evaluaron las hipótesis de neutralidad y el crecimiento poblacional para los linajes de las poblaciones mexicanas con 10 aislamientos o más (Smc1, Smc2, Smsl y Sterr). Los valores se determinaron en función de la diversidad nucleotídica promedio por sitio (π) de las cepas. Los linajes se clasificaron en el siguiente orden decreciente de π : Smsl > Smc1 > Sterr > Smc2 (**Tabla 4**).

Tabla 5. Estadística descriptiva de polimorfismos de DNA, pruebas de crecimientos de población y neutralidad para los aislamientos ambientales de Smc1, Smc2, *S. maltophilia* (Smal) y *S. terrae* (S. terr) linajes recuperados de ríos mexicanos con base en el conjunto de datos concatenados (3591 sitios)

| Species | No. Seqs | s | Eta | π | h/Hd | Theta /site | Tajima's D | R ₂ | p-value |
|---------|----------|-----|-----|---------|----------|-------------|---------------|----------------|---------|
| Smc1 | 11 | 258 | 280 | 0.02502 | 9/0.945 | 0.02662 | -0.29156 (NS) | 0.1390 | 0.45 |
| Smc2 | 15 | 173 | 185 | 0.01393 | 14/0.990 | 0.01584 | -0.45427 (NS) | 0.1199 | 0.19 |
| Smal | 51 | 500 | 560 | 0.02652 | 33/0.929 | 0.03470 | -0.85761 (NS) | 0.0903 | 0.17 |
| Sterr | 10 | 318 | 328 | 0.02388 | 7/0.067 | 0.04455 | -1.30647 (NS) | 0.1482 | 0.49 |

Para conocer el impacto de la recombinación vs. la mutación en la generación de polimorfismos, se estimó el valor R/theta. La relación entre el número medio de eventos de recombinación y los eventos de mutaciones fue mayor a 1, en Smls. En cambio, para S. terra y Smc2 esta relación fue de casi 2 y de casi 3, respectivamente. Esto indica que los eventos de recombinación homóloga introducen significativamente más polimorfismos dentro de los genomas de Stenotrophomonas que mutaciones puntuales (Tabla 5).

Tabla 6. Estimaciones de recombinación para aislamientos ambientales de Smc1, Smc2, *S. maltophilia* (Smal) y *S. terrae* (Sterr)

| Lineages | R/theta | 1/delta | nu | | | |
|----------|-------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|--|--|--|
| Smc1 | 1.10774 (0.07076) | 0.0006789 (3.213e-08) | 0.0152529 (7.570e-07) | | | |
| Smc2 | 1.89989 (0.12028) | 0.0009080 (3.121e-08) | 0.00864951 (3.081e-7) | | | |
| Smal | 2.95326 (0.10044) | 0.0010379 (1.302e-08) | 0.0129774 (1.648e-7) | | | |
| Sterr | 0.87233 (0.05113) | 0.0021663 (3.443e-07) | 0.0650391 (1.2279e-5) | | | |

Para cada linaje, se indica la media posterior y su varianza aparece entre paréntesis.

2.3.2 Filogenia genómica del género Stenotrophomonas

2.3.2.1 Validación y refinamiento de la delimitación de especies realizada con MLSA mediante aproximaciones filogenómicas

Desde una perspectiva genómica, y poniendo particular atención en la estructura taxonómica de *S. maltophilia sensu lato*, se secuenciaron cinco cepas de las genoespecies definidas como Smc1 y cinco de las definidas como Smc2. Implementando la tubería de GET_PHYLOMARKERS (diseñada por los autores de (Vinuesa, Ochoa-Sánchez, and Contreras-Moreira 2018), estas cepas se compararon con todas las secuencias de genomas disponibles para el género *Stenotrophomonas* hasta agosto de 2017. Los resultados fueron consistentes con la hipótesis de bordes de especie mencionada anteriormente. (Ver artículo completo en el **Anexo 4**.) En conclusión, en este trabajo se identificaron 10 especies. Los aislamientos del complejo *S. maltophilia* (Smc) fueron dominantes y se pudieron separar de manera consistente por lo menos cinco linajes principales: Smc1, Smc2, Smc3 y Smc4 y *S. maltophilia sensu lato*. Este último muestra una marcada estructura (heterogeneidad) genética interna, lo cual sugiere que contiene múltiples especies crípticas adicionales.

- 2.3.3 Análisis de asociación de las propiedades fenotípicas y ecológicas de los linajes: *S. maltophilia* como única productora de metalo-β-lactamasas
- 2.3.3.1 Análisis de correspondencia múltiple (MCA)

Se llevó a cabo un análisis de correspondencia múltiple para visualizar la asociación entre los perfiles de resistencia a los antibióticos, los fenotipos de producción de β -lactamasas y la

asignación de especies. Se incluyeron solo las especies con más de 10 aislamientos (Smsl, Smc1, Smc2 y *S. terrae*) para los análisis estadísticos. *S. maltophilia* forma una nube compacta y perfectamente independiente, caracterizada por una fuerte asociación con su perfil multirresistente y su condición de productora de metalo- β-lactamasas. Este grupo muestra una preferencia por los sedimentos de sitios contaminados. Por otro lado, encontramos que los linajes Smc1 y Smc2 están más asociados con el perfil de no multirresistencia y muestran preferencia por la columna de agua de sitios limpios o moderadamente contaminados (**Figura 7**).

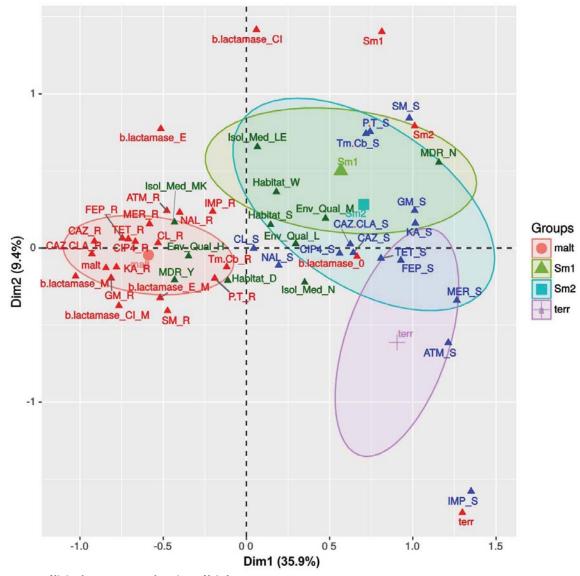


Figura 7. Análisis de correspondencia múltiple

Asociación entre perfiles de resistencia, fenotipos de producción de β-lactamasas y asignación de especie. Las 17 variable activas (IMP, imipenem; MER, meropenem; CAZ, ceftazidima; CAZ.CLA, ceftazidima con ácido clavulánico; FEP, cefepime; ATM, aztreonam, b. lactamase, species; TmCb, trimetroprim + carbenicilina; CL, cloranfenicol; SM, streptomicina; GM, gentamicina; KA, kanamicina; P.T, piperacilina/tazobactam; NAL, ácido nalidixico; CIP4, ciprofloxacino; TET, tetraciclina; b.lactamasa; especies) y las cuatro variables categóricas suplementarias [Habitat, Env_Qual (environmental quality -calidad ambiental), Isol_Med (isolation médium – medio de aislamiento), MDR (multi-drug resistance – multirresistencia)] se muestran ordenadas a lo largo de las dos primeras dimensiones que, en conjunto, explican el 45.3% de la varianza total. Se excluyeron algunas variables como CTX4 (cefotaxima), debido a la falta de variabilidad en los estados observados. Abreviaturas: malta=*S. maltophilia*; Sm1=Smc1; Sm2=Smc2; terr= *S. terrae*.

2.3.3.2 Análisis de la varianza

También se llevó a cabo un análisis ANOVA robusta (con medias recortadas) de una vía para determinar, por un lado, si había diferencias significativas entre el número de resistencias a los antibióticos individuales y el número de resistencias a las familias de antibióticos en Smsl, Smc1, Smc2 y, por otro lado, si los aislamientos de Smsl recuperados de sitios con nivel de contaminación alto y bajo presentaban el mismo número de resistencias individuales y por familias. Concluimos que las cepas de Smsl expresan una cantidad de resistencias significativamente mayor a los antibióticos individuales (12.63) y a las familias de antibióticos

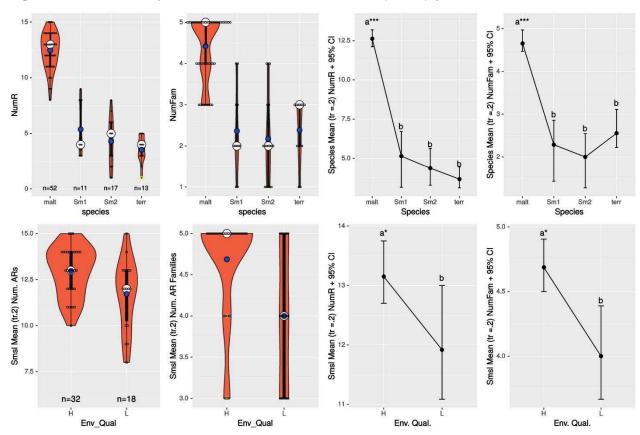


Figura 8. ANOVA de una vía muestra a *S. maltophilia* como MDR, donde los aislamientos de sitios contaminados presentan mayor número de resistencias a antibióticos

Se muestran gráficos de violín y diagramas de caja para los datos de número de resistencias a antimicrobianos individuales (NumR) y familias distintas de fármacos (NumFam) para aislamientos ambientales mexicanos. El punto blanco muestra la mediana y el azul, la media de la distribución de observaciones individuales, representadas como pequeños círculos abiertos. Los puntos amarillos indican puntos de datos atípicos. Los paneles de la fila superior corresponden a los análisis de los aislamientos mexicanos clasificados en las cuatro especies / linajes indicados en los ejes X. Los paneles inferiores corresponden a aislamientos mexicanos de *S. maltophilia* recuperados de sitios de alta y baja contaminación, según los criterios indicados en la Tabla 1. Se excluyeron los 4 aislamientos de *S. maltophilia* recuperados de sitos con nivel de contaminación intermedio, que ya que solo se tomaron en cuenta las poblaciones de organismos con > 10. Abreviaturas: Env. Qual = calidad ambiental, H = high (alto), L = low (bajo), malt = *S. maltophilia*, terr = *S. terrae*.

En conclusión, estos datos confirman que solo el linaje del complejo *S. maltophilia* (Smc), definido como *S. maltophilia* sensu lato (Smsl), es multidrogorresistente. Además, los aislamientos de este linaje provenientes de sitios contaminados son más resistentes.

2.3.3.3 Gráficas de asociación de la expresión de fenotipos de β-lactamasas

Se realizaron dos gráficas de asociación con base en los resultados de expresión de fenotipos de β -lactamasas. Encontramos una asociación significativa entre las especies y el tipo de β -lactamasas que expresan (**Figura 9**) y entre las especies y la calidad ambiental de su hábitat. La expresión de metalo- β -lactamasas estuvo asociada significativa y exclusivamente con los aislamientos de Smsl. Los linajes Smc1 y Smc no expresaron ningún tipo de β -lactamasas y los aislamientos de *S. terrae* no mostraron expresión de ningún tipo de estas enzimas (**Figura 9**).

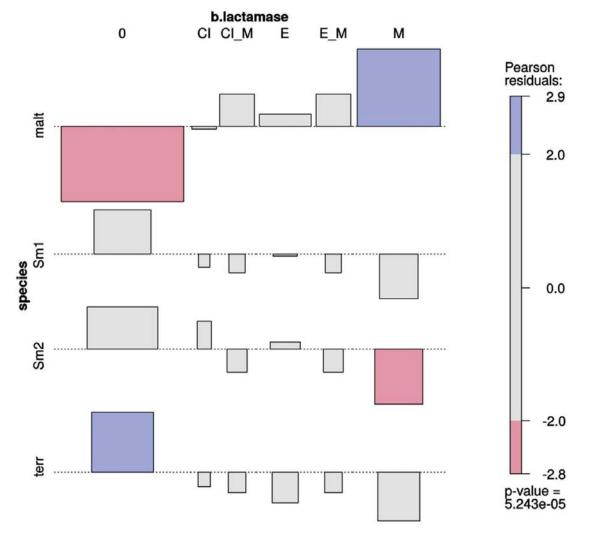


Figura 9. Gráfico de asociación bidireccional de las especies de *Stenotrophomonas* con > 10 aislamientos ambientales mexicanos y su fenotipo de producción de β-lactamasas

Las barras representan los residuos de Pearson. El código de color y la altura de las barras indican el nivel de significancia y la magnitud de los residuos. Los anchos de las barras son proporcionales al tamaño de la muestra. Los códigos de β -lactamasa son los siguientes: 0= no se detectó actividad de β -lactamasa; Cl=cefalosporinasa de clase A o clase C (AmpC) inducible por clavulanato; CL_M = cefalosporinasa inducible por clavulanato más metalo- β -lactamasa (MBL); E= β -lactamasa de espectro extendido (ESBL); E_M = ESBL más MBL; E= E0 magnitud de los residuos.

2.3.3.4 Asociación de especies de Stenotrophomonas y hábitat de aislamiento Se realizó un análisis estadístico de asociación multivía para determinar si la prevalencia de especies de Stenotrophomonas es independiente de su hábitat de aislamiento (sedimento vs. columna de agua), del nivel de contaminación del hábitat, y del medio de aislamiento. El valor de p resultó ser menor a 0.00001 (p < 0.00001), lo cual rechaza con fuerza la hipótesis nula de no asociación entre especies y hábitats, es decir, el hábitat de aislamiento no determinó la presencia de Stenotrophomonas. Observamos que S. maltophilia se recuperó mayormente en medio MacConkey y estuvo significativamente asociada con sedimentos contaminados. El linaje Smc1 mostró una asociación moderada con la columna de agua limpia, aunque algunos aislamientos también se recuperaron en medio NAA de sedimentos contaminados. En contraste, los aislamientos del linaje Smc2 estuvieron significativamente sobrerrepresentados en la columna de agua limpia y subrepresentados en los sedimentos. Estos resultados sugieren que existe un alto nivel de especialización ecológica. Cabe señalar que los aislamientos de S. terrae se recuperaron principalmente en medio NAA de sedimentos de sitios limpios (Figura 10).

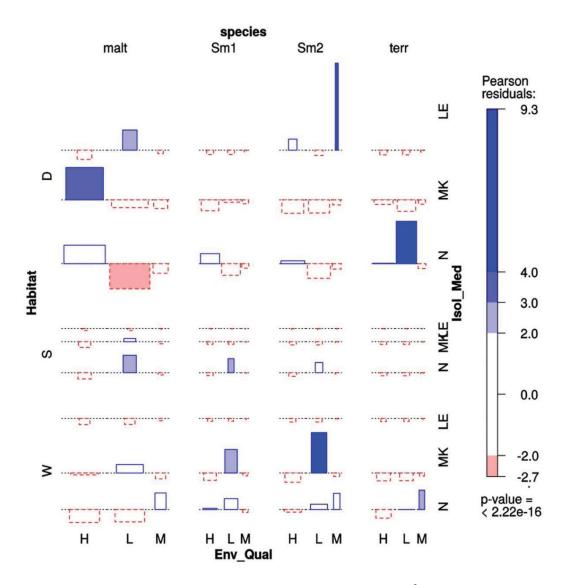


Figura 10. Gráfico de asociación de cuatro vías con los resultados del análisis de χ^2 multivía de las especies de *Stenotrophomonas* con respecto al hábitat, el medio de aislamiento y el nivel de contaminación del sitio de aislamiento

Hábitat (W = columna de agua, S = suelo inundado, D = Sedimento), medio de aislamiento (N = NAA; MK = medio MacConkey; LE = medio Leed) y nivel de contaminación (H=alto; L=bajo; M=intermedio, con base en el recuento de coliformes termotolerantes y *E. coli*, como se define en la Tabla 1). La barra de la gráfica representa los residuos de Pearson. El código de color y la altura de las barras indican el nivel de significancia y la magnitud de los residuos. El ancho de las barras indica la proporción del tamaño de muestra.

2.3.4 Métodos comerciales demuestran poca sensibilidad para la identificación de especies *Stenotrophomonas* no *maltophilia*

Se analizaron 31 cepas (previamente secuenciadas) de las diferentes especies identificadas del género en este estudio usando galerías API y 13 cepas, clasificadas en 5 especies por los análisis filogenéticos, con el método automatizado sensititre para medir su sensibilidad y especificidad y detectar las especies del complejo *maltophilia* con los métodos más comúnmente utilizados en

los hospitales* **Tabla 6**. Los métodos resultaron ser 100% sensibles, sin embargo, fueron poco específicos 23-30%. Estos valores sugieren que este tipo de pruebas para identificación de especies del género *Stenotrophomonas no* son adecuadas. Esta situación fomenta el uso innecesario de antibióticos y, en consecuencia, promueve la selección de bacterias multirresistentes. Además, eleva los costos del tratamiento y puede llevar incluso a la muerte del paciente por falla terapéutica. (**Esta sección está basada en datos no publicados**).

Tabla 7. Clasificación de especies de Stenotrophomonas con base en diferentes metodologías

| Сера | Genoma | API | Sensititre |
|-------------------|-------------------|---------------------------|------------------------------|
| ESTM1A_MKCAZ1_5 | S. maltophilia | S. maltophilia | NA |
| ESTM1A_MKCTX4_10a | S. maltophilia | S. maltophilia | S. maltophilia |
| ESTM1A_MKCTX4_10b | S. maltophilia | S. maltophilia | NA |
| ESTM1A_MKIMI1_9 | S. humi | Sphingomonas paucimobilis | S. maltophilia |
| ESTM1D_MKCIP4_1 | sm1 | S. maltophilia | NA |
| TEXM2A_MKIMI4_3 | S. maltophilia | No válida | S. maltophilia |
| TEXM2D_MKIMI4_3 | S. acidaminiphila | S. maltophilia | NA |
| TEXM3A_NACIP1_4 | S. maltophilia | S. maltophilia | NA |
| TEXM3D_MKCAZ8_7 | S. maltophilia | S. maltophilia | S. maltophilia |
| TEXM3D_NACIP1_4 | S. maltophilia | S. maltophilia | NA |
| SAU14A_NAIMI4_2 | S. terrae | S. maltophilia | Chryseobacterium indologenes |
| SAU14A_NAIMI4_3 | sm1 | S. maltophilia | S. maltophilia |
| SAU14A_NAIMI4_5 | sm1 | S. maltophilia | NA |
| SAU14Dr_NAIMI4_11 | S. maltophilia | S. maltophilia | NA |
| EST14D2_NAIMI4_8 | S. terrae | S. maltophilia | Shewanella putrefaciens |
| YAU14A_MKIMI4_1 | sm2 | No válida | NA |
| YAU14A_NACAZ8_1 | S. maltophilia | S. maltophilia | S. maltophilia |
| YAU14D1_LEIMI4_1 | sm2 | S. maltophilia | NA |
| ZAC14A_NAIMI4_1 | sm1 | S. maltophilia | S. maltophilia |
| ZAC14D1_NAIMI4_6 | sm1 | S. maltophilia | NA |
| ZAC14D1_NAIMI4_9 | sm2 | S. maltophilia | S. maltophilia |
| ZAC14D2_NAIMI4_1 | S. maltophilia | S. maltophilia | NA |
| ZAC14D2_NAIMI4_2 | S. acidaminiphila | No válida | NA |
| ZAC14D2_NAIMI4_6 | sm2 | S. maltophilia | NA |
| ZAC14D2_NAIMI4_7 | sm2 | S. maltophilia | NA |
| ZAC14D1_MKIMI4_8 | S. maltophilia | S. maltophilia | NA |
| ZAC14D2_LEIMI4_13 | sm2 | No válida | S. maltophilia |
| SAU14A_NAIMI4_8 | sm2 | S. maltophilia | NA |
| EST14A_MKIMI4_1 | sm1 | S. maltophilia | S. maltophilia |
| ZAC14D1_NAIMI4_1 | sm1 | S. maltophilia | NA |
| ESTM1A_MKIMI1_9 | S. humi | S. maltophilia | NA |
| ESTM1A_MKIMI4_2 | sm2 | NA | S. maltophilia |

NA= No aplica

* Para ello se utilizaron las siguientes fórmulas:

$$sensibilidad = \frac{VP}{VP+FN} X 100$$
 $especificidad = \frac{VN}{VN+FP} X 100$

donde VP = verdaderos positivos, FN = falsos negativos, VN = verdaderos negativos y FP = falsos positivos.

2.3.5 Pruebas de susceptibilidad para *Stenotrophomonas* frente a antibióticos de elección (CLSI, EUKAST): Levofloxacino como una opción para el tratamiento de infecciones ocasionadas por *S. maltophilia*

Se llevaron a cabo pruebas de susceptibilidad (*datos no publicados*) para *Stenotrophomonas* frente a antibióticos de elección (trimethoprim-sulfametoxazol y levofloxacino) (CLSI, 2017) y antibióticos de última generación (colistina y tigeciclina) para el tratamiento de enfermedades ocasionadas por *S. maltophilia*. Puesto que este microorganismo es productor intrínseco de β-lactamasas, también incluimos en los análisis agentes antibióticos con inhibidores de estas enzimas (ampicilina-sulbactam, amoxicilina-ácido clavulánico y ticarcilina-ácido clavulánico). Además, se incluyeron en el perfil de antibióticos otras especies del género de las cuales contábamos con más de 10 individuos (Sm1, Sm2 y *S. terrae*), puesto que aún no se han realizado estudios sobre su susceptibilidad.

S. maltophilia resultó ser la especie con mayor número de resistencias a los antibióticos. Fue resistente a la mayoría de los antibióticos probados. De especial cuidado deben ser trimethoprim-sulfametoxazol y colistina, ya que se han empezado a observar resistencias considerables de la especie ante estos agentes. Observamos que levofloxacino es un antibiótico prometedor para el tratamiento de infecciones ocasionadas por este patógeno.

Sm1 presentó altas resistencias ante cefoxitín y amoxicilina-ácido clavulánico. Cabe señalar que la mitad de las cepas probadas resultaron ser resistentes a trimethoprim-sulfametoxazol y ampicilina-sulbactam. Sm2 y *S. terrae* mostraron resistencias principalmente a los antibióticos en combinación con inhibidores de β-lactamasas y a cefoxitín (**Figura 11 y 12**).

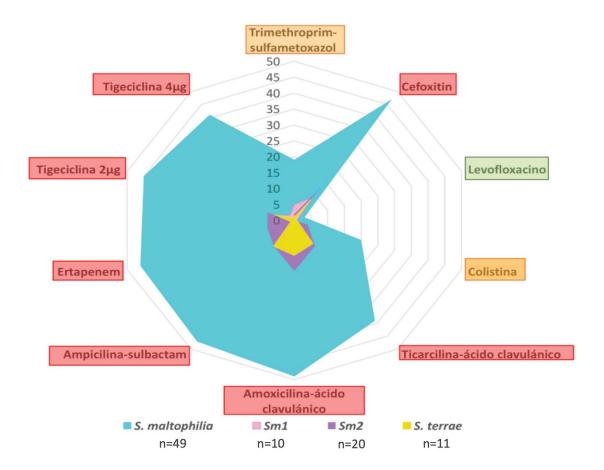


Figura 11. Análisis de red de la susceptibilidad de *Stenotrophomonas* frente a antibióticos de elección, antibióticos de última generación e inhibidores de β-lactamasas

La red representa el número de individuos que se incluyeron de cada especie para el análisis. El color azul corresponde a las cepas resistentes de *S. maltophilia* a cada uno de los antibióticos probados. El color rosa corresponde a las cepas resistentes de Sm1. El color violeta corresponde a las cepas resistentes de Sm2. El color amarillo corresponde a las cepas resistentes de *S. terrae*. Los rectángulos rojos corresponden a los antibióticos ante los cuales se observa mayor resistencia de las cepas. Los rectángulos anaranjados corresponden a los antibióticos ante los que la mitad de las cepas muestran resistencia y, por lo tanto, deben utilizarse con precaución. El rectángulo verde corresponde a levofloxacino, el único antibiótico ante el cual la mayoría de las cepas fue sensible.

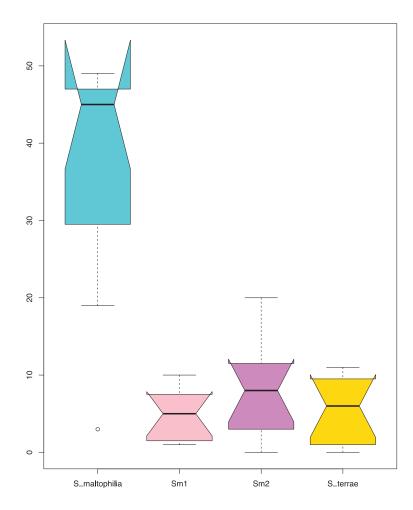


Figura 12. Diagramas de caja para el número individual de resistencias a antimicrobianos de los aislamientos ambientales mexicanos de *Stenotrophomonas*

El color azul corresponde a *S. maltophilia*. El color rosa corresponde a Sm1. El color violeta corresponde a Sm2. El color amarillo corresponde a *S. terrae*. La línea negra gruesa en cada caja corresponde a la mediana de la muestra. Las líneas que sobresalen de las cajas corresponden al valor mínimo (la inferior) y al valor máximo (la superior) de los datos. Los círculos pequeños representan los valores extremos.

2.3.6 Ejemplos puntuales del impacto de la contaminación antropogénica sobre los elementos genéticos móviles de *Stenotrophomonas acidaminiphila*

De nuestra colección de *Stenotrophomonas*, se seleccionaron 60 aislamientos —con base en su posición filogenética, sus perfiles de resistencia, y la presencia o ausencia de elementos genéticos móviles— para llevar a cabo la secuenciación de su genoma completo. De este grupo, se identificaron tres cepas de *S. acidaminiphila* (**Figura 5A**) provenientes de ambientes con alto grado de contaminación fecal: ZAC14D2_NAIMI4_2, TEXM2D_MKIMI4_3 y TEXM2D_MKIMI4_19.

Las cepas TEXM2D_MKIMI4_3 y TEXM2D_MKIMI4_19 que están relacionadas filogenéticamente se observan en el árbol conformando un clado muy diferenciado, con escasa distancia evolutiva entre ellas. Estas cepas presentaron perfiles de susceptibilidad muy diferentes. La cepa TEXM2D_MKIMI4_3 presentó resistencia a 12 antibióticos pertenecientes a

cinco familias de antibióticos, mientras que la cepa TEXM2D_MKIMI4_19, solo a cuatro antibióticos que corresponden a dos familias. Esto se debió a la presencia de un integrón de clase 1, que contiene los genes de resistencia blaOXA-2 y aac(6)'-lb, precedidos por la intregrasa IntlA Figura 13A. El alelo de blaOXA-2 es idéntico a uno de Enterobacter cloacae, (filogenia presentada en la Figura 13B) sugiriendo transferencia desde una Enterobacteriaceae. Esta región esta flanqueada por transposasas (STAC3_32580 y tnpA), que posiblemente estuvieron involucradas en la movilización del integrón. Nótese que hay un gap en el ensamble río abajo de STAC3_32580 (Figura 13A). Al ordenar los contigs de TEXM2D_MKIMI4_3 con el genoma completo de referencia S. acidaminiphila ZAC14D2_NAIMI4_2 (Vinuesa and Ochoa-Sánchez 2015), sugiere que el integrón va ligado a una región de resistencia a cobre (operón cop completo) y otros metales. Los genes STAC3_32490 y STAC3_32500 forman un sistema de dos componentes probablemente involucrados en la regulación del mismo dado su alto parecido al sistema de dos componentes IrlS e IrlR de Burkholdria pseudomallei. Involucrado en el control de la homeóstasis de metales pesado (A. L. Jones, DeShazer, and Woods 1997); (Van Der Lelie et al. 1997). Estos genes tienen 100% de similitud y 100% de cobertura con CusS y CusR de múltiples especies y géneros de beta proteobacterias. A unas pocas kilobases río arriba del operón cop se encuentra otras transposasa, por lo que esta región tiene una historia compleja de movilización y ensamble por transferencia horizontal.

En resumen, esta es la primera vez que se identifica un integrón de clase 1 en *Stenotrophomonas acidaminiphila*. Pudimos observar dos fenómenos de interés: 1) todas las cepas recuperadas de esta especie son sensibles a la mayoría de los antimicrobianos probados en este estudio, excepto la cepa TEXM2D_MKIMI4_3 que presenta el integrón, y 2) todas las cepas de la especie se recuperaron de ambientes con alto grado de contaminación.

Por otro lado, en la cepa de referencia *S. acidaminiphila* ZAC14D2_NAIMI4_2 (Vinuesa and Ochoa-Sánchez 2015) localizamos una isla genómica (GEI_Stac2, 10.2Kb, G+C=0.63%) que porta un gen que anotamos como una nueva cloranfenicol O-acetil transfersa de tipo B (catB), no descrita en Gamma proteobacteria, y distantemente relacionada con homólogos en *Bacteroidetes* y *Cyannobacteria*, como muestra la filogenia presentada en la (**Figura 14**). Este gen fue amplificado mediante PCR, clonado en el vector TOPO2 PCR, y transformado en *E. coli* DH5α, demostrando que confiere resistencia a cloranfenicol 50mg/L y que por lo tanto es un novedoso gen tipo *catB*.

Estos resultados nos sugieren que la contaminación antropogénica es determinante en la adquisición de elementos genéticos móviles responsables de la transferencia horizontal de resistencia a antimicrobianos, tal y como postulamos en nuestra hipótesis.

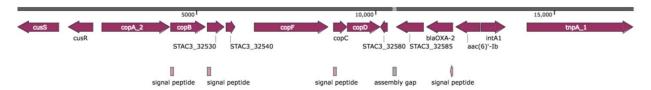


Figura 13A. Resistencia adquirida en S acidaminiphila (TEXM2D_MKIMI4_3) debido a que codifica un integrón de clase 1 que contiene bla-OXA-2 una β -lactamasa de clase D que no se ha reportado previamente en Stenotrophomonas

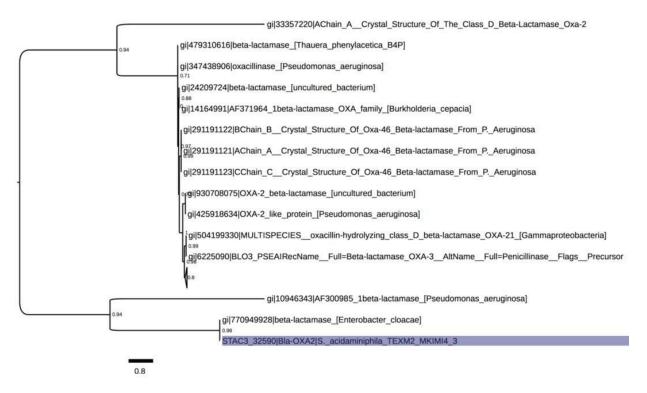


Figura 13B. Filogenia de máxima verosimilitud de la β-lactamasa de clase D bla-OXA-2 con los 30 blastp hits Sugiere que bla-OXA-2 del integrón de clase 1 de la cepa de *S. acidaminiphila* (ZAC14D2_NAIMI4_2) está involucrada en transferencia horizontal con *Enterobacter*



Figura 14. Filogenia de máxima verosimilitud de la cepa ZAC14D2_NAIMI4_2 de la proteína AOT14_04360 que codifica a una nueva cloranfenicol O-acetiltransferasa, con 50 blastp hits

2.4 Discusión

La delimitación de las especies del género Stenotrophomonas que realizamos con los aislados de nuestra colección usando una combinación de métodos filogenéticos y de genética de poblaciones reveló una amplia diversidad de especies de Stenotrophomonas en los ambientales muestreados. De manera conservadora, identificamos al menos seis especies, dos de ellas claramente nuevas (Smc1 y Smc2). Este es el primer estudio donde el modelo coalescente multiespecies —utilizado para delimitar especies de mamíferos (Rannala and Yang 2003; Edwards, Liu, and Pearl 2007; Degnan and Rosenberg 2009)— acoplado con análisis de factor de Bayes (Factors, Kass, and Raftery 1995) se usa para la delimitación de especies microbianas. En nuestro análisis, la topología de la filogenia de máxima verosimilitud inferida a partir del conjunto de datos concatenado es congruente con el árbol inferido a partir del modelo coalescente multiespecies. La diferencia más notable entre ambos se observa en dos linajes (Smc1 y Smc2) en relación con Smsl. En el árbol de máxima verosimilitud, las ramas ordenan a los clados hermanos de la siguiente manera: Smc2-Smc1-Smcl, donde Smc2 es el clado basal y Smsl es el linaje más derivado. Por otra parte, en el árbol de especies bayesiano, Smsl es el clado basal con respecto a Smc1 y Smc2. Esta diferencia puede deberse a un artefacto derivado de la concatenación de loci usada para estimar el árbol de máxima verosimilitud. Una ventaja del modelo coalescente es que no requiere la concatenación. No obstante, la diferencia topológica

puede deberse también a que el árbol coalescente refleja la heterogeneidad genética de las cepas agrupadas en el linaje Smsl, que probablemente incluye múltiples especies crípticas adicionales, como sugiere la alta diversidad y la marcada estructura interna del clado, reveladas por el análisis de estructura. Además, estos resultados apoyan nuestros análisis genotaxonómicos (Vinuesa, Ochoa-Sánchez, and Contreras-Moreira 2018). Por ello, la rama correspondiente al Smsl se bifurca antes en el árbol de especies, al corresponderse con un tamaño poblacional ancestral mucho mayor.

A pesar de las decisiones conservadoras tomadas en este estudio, el análisis de factor de Bayes, proporciona un soporte estadístico fuerte a favor de separar el complejo *S. maltophilia* en cinco linajes evolutivos: *S. maltophilia sensu lato* (Smsl) y las genoespecies crípticas Smc1, Smc2, Smc3 y Smc4. Identificamos también tres aislados de *S. acidaminiphila*, una población de aislados cercanos a *S. terrae* y un aislado similar a *S. humi*. El análisis también muestra que el genogrupo 8, hermano de *S. rhizophila*, es *S. bentonitica* y constituye un linaje independiente, (Vinuesa, Ochoa-Sánchez, and Contreras-Moreira 2018), lo cual podría tener implicaciones importantes en el área de la biotecnología, ya que esta especie puede promover el crecimiento de plantas y llevar a cabo funciones de biocontrol (Vasileuskaya-Schulz et al. 2011). *S. rhizophila* es una especie segura ya que es sensible a la mayoría de los antibióticos y no presenta enzimas de resistencia; además es fácil de separar de *S. maltophilia*, especie ampliamente descrita como patógena (Berg and Martinez 2015). La consistencia que encontramos entre todas las estrategias usadas, incluido el análisis de pangenoma (Vinuesa, Ochoa-Sánchez, and Contreras-Moreira 2018) apoyan fuertemente la delimitación que proponemos.

Existen modelos de especiación bacteriana que sugieren que las especies con una relación cercana exhiben cierto grado de particionado o uso diferencial de recursos y, consecuentemente, ocupan diferentes nichos. Así, las especies pueden beneficiarse o verse afectadas por la ganancia de un gen a través de transferencia horizontal o de alguna mutación adaptativa. A partir de estos modelos, se ha propuesto que los linajes cercanos de especies bacterianas se identifiquen con base en el flujo reducido de genes entre ellos, mientras que las especies del mismo linaje presentarán una alta recombinación genética (Shapiro 2014); (Cadillo-Quiroz et al. 2012). En este trabajo, nosotros mostramos que los linajes mexicanos Smsl, Smc1, y Smc2 encajan bien en este modelo.

De acuerdo con la prueba estadística KST (Hudson, Boos, and Kaplan 1992), con base en los polimorfismos de ADN se observa una diferenciación genética significativa entre todos los linajes

simpátricos. Esta prueba es consistente con los resultados obtenidos mediante el análisis de STRUCTURE. Por otro lado, el número de migrantes entre estos linajes fue insignificante, lo cual muestra niveles bajos de flujo de genes entre ellos. Sin embargo, las estimaciones de Rho/theta obtenidas (1.11 para Smc1 y casi 3 para Smsl), nos señalan que la recombinación es una fuerza importante de cohesión génica en estos linajes. Los altos niveles de recombinación en el linaje Smsl sugieren que en este grupo la especiación se encuentra en curso, lo cual se aprecia en los bordes vagos entre los sublinajes (Shapiro, Leducq, and Mallet 2016; Hanage, Fraser, and Spratt 2005). Esta situación también puede observarse en los resultados del análisis STRUCTURE y los análisis filogenéticos, a partir del poder resolutivo provisto por el esquema de siete genes de MLST. Es por esto que nosotros nos referimos a este linaje de forma conservadora como S. maltophilia sensu lato (Smsl). Con el análisis pangenómico, pudimos confirmar que Smc contiene las genoespecies Smc1, Smc2, Smc3 y Smc4. Además, en el clado de S. maltophilia sensu lato se proponen, conservadoramente, ocho linajes nuevos con base a la evidencia consistente derivada del análisis filogenómico del core, pan-genoma y agrupamiento de valores de diversidad nucleotídica promedio entre genomas (ANI_b) (Vinuesa, Ochoa-Sánchez, and Contreras-Moreira 2018).

Como lo predicen los modelos de especiación desarrollados recientemente para bacterias (Koeppel et al. 2008; Vos 2011; Shapiro and Polz 2015), la marcada diferenciación genética detectada entre las poblaciones ambientales simpátricas de Smsl, Smc1 y Smc2 apunta a su asociación significativa con las preferencias de hábitat, a partir de sus perfiles de susceptibilidad a antibióticos y a sus fenotipos de expresión de β-lactamasas. Estos atributos sugieren fuertemente que los linajes tienen fenotipos y, por lo tanto, nichos ecológicos diferenciados. Las preferencias de hábitat pueden proveer una separación microgeográfica entre las poblaciones que coexisten en el mismo río. Esto podría explicar, en parte, el reducido flujo genético entre ellas, a pesar de ser linajes hermanos. Esto contribuye a su diferenciación genética. Estas características también se han observado en otros microorganismos acuáticos como Desulfolobus (Oakley et al. 2010), Exiguobacterium (Rebollar et al. 2012) y Vibrio (Shapiro 2014) (Friedman, Alm, and Shapiro 2013). Nuestros resultados apoyan la creciente evidencia que señala que la partición de nicho es un factor principal que promueve la divergencia evolutiva entre poblaciones procariotas simpátricas estrechamente relacionadas, incluso cuando presentan altos niveles de recombinación (Shapiro and Polz 2015).

En cuanto a los atributos fenotípicos del género, la resistencia a los antibióticos se discute frecuentemente en la literatura. En general, se ha argumentado que existe una alta variación de fenotipos de resistencia antimicrobiana en *S. maltophilia* (Deredjian et al. 2016). Sin embargo, nuestro argumento es que esta variación reportada en la literatura se debe a una delimitación inapropiada de las especies, debida al uso de métodos pobres de tipificación, que no pueden discriminar linajes dentro del complejo *S. maltophilia*.

La mala identificación de *Stenotrophomonas* tiene repercusiones en diferentes niveles. Por un lado, podría afectar la aplicación de las cepas seguras en agricultura y biotecnología. Por otro lado, puede haber consecuencias graves derivadas de la pobre especificidad de los métodos utilizados regularmente para a identificación bacteriana en la clínica: elevación de los costos del tratamiento, posible aparición de efectos secundarios adversos, fomento de la multirresistencia, e incluso la muerte de los pacientes.

Esta situación se ha desencadenado de estudios que han identificado a todo el género *Stenotrophomonas* como intrínsecamente resistente a múltiples fármacos (Brooke 2012; Berg and Martinez 2015). En contraste, nuestro estudio revela una asociación muy significativa entre el linaje Smsl y la producción de metalo-β-lactamasas, que no detectamos en los linajes Smc1 y Smc2. Por lo tanto, la resistencia intrínseca a los antibióticos solo se debe asumir para cepas Smsl, tanto de origen clínico como ambiental, pero no para los linajes que quedan fuera de este.

Finalmente, es relevante volver a mencionar el hecho de haber encontrado elementos genéticos móviles portadores de determinantes de resistencia en cepas de *S. acidaminiphila* susceptibles a antibióticos en ambientes con alta contaminación antropogénica. Esto sugiere que tal contaminación puede ser un importante factor que promueve la transferencia y selección de determinantes de resistencia antimicrobiana entre bacterias de dichos hábitats, incluso cuando estas carecen de plásmidos.

2.5 Conclusión

Los resultados a los que llegamos a través del uso de métodos de genética de poblaciones y de filogenética muestran que es posible llevar a cabo una delimitación robusta de los bordes de especies naturales en poblaciones de *Stenotrophomonas*. Los análisis genómicos presentados para 10 cepas de los linajes simpátricos Smc1 y Smc2 apoyan plenamente su estado de especies separadas. Gracias a esta delimitación evolutiva de especies, pudieron encontrarse asociaciones estadísticamente significativas entre los diversos linajes detectados con perfiles de resistencia

diferenciados, así como preferencias de hábitat contrastantes. Solo el linaje aquí definido como *S. maltophilia* sensu lato (Smsl) es multidrogo-resistente y productor de metalo-β-lactamasas. Smsl presenta en promedio resistencia a 12 de los 15 combinaciones y antibióticos analizados siendo por lo tanto pan-resistentes. Cabe señalar que de los antibióticos recomendados por el (CLSI 2017) entre los que tenemos a ticarcilina-ácido clavulánico, ceftazidima, levofloxacino, trimetoprima con sulfametoxazol y cloranfenicol, solo levofloxacino parece ser una buena opción para el tratamiento ocasionado por estos macroorganismos. Debido a que es el antibiótico en el que se observó mayor susceptibilidad. Es necesario estar en alerta con trimetoprim-sulfametoxazol (antibiótico de elección) ya que la mitad de nuestros alimentos ya presentan resistencia a este agente.

2.6 Perspectivas

- Realizar análisis de genómica comparativa y de poblaciones para resolver el estado de especiación de los sublinajes dentro de Smsl
- Estudiar la ecología y la evolución tanto de la resistencia intrínseca como de la adquirida
- Realizar análisis de patogénesis y virulencia dentro de los diferentes sublinajes
- Llevar a cabo los análisis antes propuestos acompañados de cepas del género aisladas de ambientes clínicos para realizar comparaciones integrativas
- Realizar propuestas de esquemas antibióticos para el tratamiento de enfermedades causadas por especies del género Stenotrophomonas, con base en análisis genómicos y fenotípicos

Capítulo 3. Acinetobacter

3.1 Antecedentes: Microbiología, epidemiología y taxonomía del género

En la actualidad, *Acinetobacter* es uno de los géneros con más relevancia en el área clínica debido a su multirresistencia a antibióticos. Beijerink et al. (1911) aislaron cepas de una especie de este género a partir de un medio mínimo con acetato de calcio, pero la incluyeron en otro género denominándola *Micrococus calcoaceticus*. Posteriormente, Brisou y Prévot (1954) la caracterizaron y propusieron la existencia de un género distinto al que llamaron *Acinetobacter*. Años después (Baumann 1968) continuaron la caracterización de este género.

Tabla 8. Taxonomía del género *Acinetobacter*

| abia o. Taxononna v | del genero nemetobaeter |
|---------------------|--|
| Dominio | Bacteria (Woese, Kandler, and Wheelis 1990) |
| Filo | Proteobacteria (Garrity and Lilburn 2005) |
| Clase | Gammaproteobacteria (Garrity and Lilburn 2005) |
| Orden | Pseudomonadales (Orla-Jensen, 1921) |
| Familia | Moraxellaceae (S. Il Kim, Yoo, and Kahng 2001) (Lwoff, 1939) |
| Género | Acinetobacter (Brisou and Prevot 1954) |
| Especie principal | Acinetobacter baumannii (Brisou and Prevot 1954) |

Microbiológicamente, las bacterias de este género se caracterizan por ser no mótiles; negativas a Gram, oxidasa, nitrato e indol; positivas a catalasa, y estrictamente aerobias. No presentan pigmentación, con óptimos de crecimiento a temperaturas de entre 33° y 37° C (Vallenet et al. 2008) y en ambientes con pH y niveles de nutrientes variables. Son microorganismos altamente adaptados a vivir en ambientes diversos, tanto naturales como antropogénicos (Vila, Martí, and Sánchez-Céspedes 2007). Aunque prevalecen en ambientes naturales, como suelos, ríos, océanos (Kostka et al. 2011; Mahjoubi et al. 2013), sedimentos en manglares, sedimentos marinos en la Antártida, ambientes vírgenes (Kuhn, Bellicanta, and Pellizari 2009; Rocha et al. 2013), han sido recuperados también de aguas negras, lodos activados (Doughari et al. 2011) y sitios contaminados por hidrocarburos (Kostka et al. 2011; Mahjoubi et al. 2013). Esta diversidad ecológica también es indicativa de su diversidad genética, lo cual implica un reto para su correcta clasificación. Este género incluye tanto especies patógenas como no patógenas (de Berardinis et al. 2009).

Hasta ahora no ha sido posible delimitar adecuadamente las especies conforman el género. Es por ello que se han propuesto técnicas moleculares de identificación, que, con el paso del tiempo, han mejorado considerablemente el proceso. Entre estas técnicas destacan la secuenciación de genes individuales (16S rRNA, *rpoB*, *gyrB*); la hibridación DNA-DNA, y la secuenciación de genomas completos, que suministran buena información para los estudios

taxonómicos del género (Rafei et al. 2014; Jung and Park 2015) (**Anexo 10**). Actualmente, el género contiene 62 especies (validadas y no validadas – http://www.bacterio.net/acinetobacter.html 2018).

A pesar de los esfuerzos realizados y del uso de técnicas de frontera, sigue habiendo problemas para delimitar las especies. Un ejemplo de esto es lo que sucede con el complejo *Acinetobacter calcoaceticus-baumannii* (Acb), que consiste en cinco especies patogénicas (*A. baumannii, A.nosocomialis, A. pittii, A. seifertii* y *A. dijkshoorniae*) y una especie no patogénica (*A. calcoaceticus*) (Bouvet and Grimont 1986; Nemec et al. 2010; Cosgaya et al. 2016; Gerner-Smidt, Tjernberg, and Ursing 1991). La escasa habilidad para distinguir las especies del complejo y para determinar su reservorio impide analizar con especificidad la susceptibilidad de las cepas. Esto redunda en un tratamiento incorrecto de los pacientes infectados. Además, existe un sesgo fuerte en la información, ya que los cinco miembros del complejo suelen identificarse como *A. baumannii*, es decir, se utiliza la designación *A. baumannii* para todos (Harding, Hennon, and Feldman 2018). Por todo esto, se encuentran secuencias mal clasificadas en los repositorios genómicos. El problema con una mala clasificación es que se hereda a futuras publicaciones y, por lo tanto, será difícil identificar con certeza la especie de la cual se habla. Por otro lado, solo con la correcta delimitación de especies podremos aprovechar las cepas del género en procesos de biorremediación o como blanco para el uso de nuevos fármacos (Tacconelli et al. 2017).

Acinetobacter spp. incluye especies que suelen aislarse de infecciones nosocomiales (Peleg, Seifert, and Paterson 2008), cuya prevalencia se ha reportado entre el 30% y el 70%. La más importante en clínica es Acinetobacter baumannii (Houang et al. 2001).

A. baumannii es un cocobacilo (Med et al. 1999) no fermentativo, comúnmente encontrado en agua y suelo. A. baumannii es famosa por su persistencia ambiental: puede sobrevivir hasta por cinco meses en superficies inanimadas (Kramer, Schwebke, and Kampf 2006). Se ha identificado que es más resistente a condiciones secas, pues ensancha su espacio periplásmico y por consiguiente, engruesa su pared celular (Houang et al. 2001). Es la especie con mayor prevalencia en infecciones hospitalarias, debido principalmente a su multirresistencia a los antimicrobianos. La Organización Mundial de la Salud colocó a Acinetobacter baumannii resistente a carbapenémicos en la posición número uno (prioridad crítica) de los patógenos que se deben estudiar prioritariamente y para los cuales se necesitan urgentemente nuevos fármacos (WHO, 2017). A. baumannii tiene, además, un lugar entre los microorganismos patogénicos más peligrosos agrupados por la Sociedad de Enfermedades Infecciosas de América (IDSA) como

patógenos ESKAPE (Enterococcus faecium, Staphylococcus aureus, Klebsiella pneumoniae, Acinetobacter baumannii, Pseudomonas aeruginosa y Enterobacter spp.) (Pendleton, Gorman, and Gilmore 2013; Rice 2008; Bush and Jacoby 2010). Estas bacterias son las causantes más comunes de infecciones nosocomiales, que amenazan la vida de enfermos críticos y de individuos inmunocomprometidos (Rice 2008). Son capaces de eludir la acción biocida de los antibióticos y colectivamente representan nuevos paradigmas en cuanto a patogénesis, transmisión y resistencia. El estudio de los ESKAPE es esencial para el trabajo en la investigación sobre quimioterapia antimicrobiana (Rice 2008).

A. baumannii tiene la tasa de mortalidad e incidencia más alta de todas las especies bacterianas como agente de infecciones nosocomiales oportunistas (Clark, Zhanel, and Lynch 2016). A. baumannii tiene una prevalencia superior al 75% en África, Asia y América Latina y alcanza el 90% en algunas partes de Europa y el Medio Oriente. Esta discrepancia apunta muy probablemente a la falta de estudios en los países en vías de desarrollo.

A. baumannii es un patógeno oportunista, que se puede encontrar en unidades de cuidados intensivos y salas de cirugía donde el uso intensivo de antibióticos ha promovido la selección de resistencia contra los antimicrobianos (Vila, Martí, and Sánchez-Céspedes 2007; Med et al. 1999). Puede ocasionar septicemia, neumonía e incluso la muerte (J. M. Cisneros et al. 1996; José M. Cisneros et al. 2005; McQueary et al. 2012). Se ha aislado en hospitales alrededor del mundo (Tognim et al. 2004; Lolans et al. 2006; Perez et al. 2007), así como en soldados estadunidenses y canadiense heridos en Iraq (Yun et al. 2006; Schafer et al. 2007; Scott et al. 2007) y Afganistán (Tien et al. 2007; Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 2004).

Aunque la mayoría de las infecciones nosocomiales está asociada a *A. baumanni* (H Seifert, Schulze, and Baginski 1994), otras especies del género también se han asociado con infecciones nosocomiales (Nemec et al. 2001). Hay un incremento en reportes de infecciones comunitarias y nosocomiales causadas por especies de *Acinetobacter no-baumannii* (Espinal, Roca, and Vila 2011). Ello se debe al desarrollo y uso de nuevas tecnologías para la identificación basadas en secuencias moleculares. No obstante, aún hay deficiencias para delimitar las especies del género.

Entre las especies no-baumannii aisladas en la clínica, se han reportado las siguientes: Acinetobacter haemolyticus, que es un agente causal de la endocarditis (Castellanos M.E et al.1995); A. johnsonii, que está asociada con infecciones del torrente sanguíneo relacionado con el uso del catéter (H Seifert, Schulze, and Baginski 1994); A. pitti, A. nosocomialis (Fitzpatrick,

Ozer, and Hauser 2016) (Karah et al. 2011; Kouyama et al. 2012) y *A. calcoaceticus*, que se han asociado a varios casos de neumonía y bacteremia (Mostachio et al. 2012). También se han encontrado otras especies como *A. Iwoffi* y *A. junii* asociadas a este tipo de infecciones (Rathinavelu, Zavros, and Merchant 2003; Karah et al. 2011).

La multirresistencia a los antibióticos que caracteriza a todo el género *Acinetobacter* se debe principalmente a la interacción de sus tres componentes: impermeabilidad de la membrana, expresión de bombas de eflujo y expresión de enzimas. Los antibióticos carbapenémicos son la opción de última elección para tatar infecciones causadas por bacterias multirresistentes como estas.

Una de las características clave de *A. baumannii* es su pangenoma abierto, que contiene una variedad de elementos genéticos móviles, entre los que destacan los integrones y los transposones (ubicados en islas genómicas, algunas de las cuales se conocen como islas de resistencia debido a la presencia de múltiples genes de resistencia) y los plásmidos (Figueiredo et al. 2012). El mecanismo de multirresistencia antimicrobiana está asociado con estos elementos. (Fournier et al. 2006; Cooper, Tsimring, and Hasty 2017) **Anexo 11**.

Varios estudios han mostrado la alta prevalencia de integrones clase 1 entre las bacterias. El mayor número de genes de resistencia MBL adquiridos en *A. baumannii* se han encontrado en integrones clase 1, que con frecuencia contienen una variedad de casetes génicos de resistencia (Peleg, Seifert, and Paterson 2008; Potron, Poirel, and Nordmann 2015).

A pesar de los reportes existentes sobre la alta prevalencia de integrones clase 1 en *A. baumannii*, estudios realizados en países de Latino América, como Chile, Argentina y Brasil, han demostrado también una amplia distribución de integrones clase 2 en esta especie (M. Pagano et al. 2013; Fonseca et al. 2011). Se ha demostrado que los integrones clase 2 obtenidos de aislamientos en Brasil están insertados en el transposon Tn7, que tiene casetes génicos con genes *dfrA1* (resistencia a trimetroprim), *sat2* (resistencia a estreptomicina) y *aadA1* (resistencia a espectinomicina y estreptomicina) (Fonseca et al. 2011). Más de 130 casetes génicos, con genes de resistencia, se han identificado en los integrones (Fournier et al. 2006).

Pagano et al., 2015 han investigado la asociación entre los integrones clase 1 y 2 y los casetes génicos (CC109/1 y CC113/79) de los linajes clonales de *A. baumannii*. Estos autores han planteado la hipótesis de que la cantidad elevada de integrones clase 2 predominantes en América Latina se debe a la alta prevalencia del clon tipo CC113/79. En este mismo estudio, una prevalencia similar se observó en *A. nosocomialis* (Mariana Pagano, Martins, and Barth 2016).

Los genes de resistencia también se transmiten a través de plásmidos. En *A. baumannii*, el tamaño de los plásmidos oscila entre 2 kb y 100 kb (Hamidian, Ambrose, and Hall 2016; Gallagher et al. 2015). Los plásmidos grandes de *A. baumannii* son a menudo el foco de análisis, principalmente debido a la presencia de múltiples genes de resistencia a antibióticos y a su naturaleza autotransmisible (Hamidian and Hall 2014; Dougan et al. 2016; Hamidian, Ambrose, and Hall 2016).

Resulta sorprendente que, a pesar de la importancia de los plásmidos en la transmisión potencial de genes de resistencia y virulencia en *A. baumannii*, se ha realizado muy poco trabajo experimental sobre la biología básica de estos plásmidos. Hasta ahora, los plásmidos en *A. baumannii* se han clasificado en 19 grupos homólogos (GR1-GR19) y hay un solo esquema de tipificación de acuerdo con sus proteínas replicasas (Rep) (Bertini et al. 2010).

En los últimos años, ha incrementado notablemente la cantidad y diversidad taxonómica de genomas completos secuenciados, así como de genomas draft del género (Touchon et al. 2014a) (Nasser et al. 2018). Ello proporciona datos sobre la resistencia, la virulencia y la filogenética, además de información útil de tipificación para la investigación de brotes (ECDC 2016).

Los estudios genómicos han mostrado que el género *Acinetobacter* están asociados con un pangenoma abierto muy grande. Esto se debe a la transferencia y adquisición de elementos genéticos móviles. También existen procesos de recombinación homóloga del genoma completo (ECDC, 2016).

Al igual que en otros géneros bacterianos, *Acinetobacter* tiene un pangenoma con una gran cantidad de genes cuya función desconocemos. En el caso de *A. baumannii*, se ha reportado que un poco más de un tercio del pangenoma (40%) es específico para cada cepa, lo cual confirma que la especie tiene un pangenoma grande (Touchon et al. 2014a).

Con respecto al genoma *core* de *Acinetobacter*, se han identificado una gran cantidad de factores de virulencia (Antunes et al. 2011). Además, se ha descrito que el genoma *core* contiene 950 familias de proteínas ortólogas y, al menos, 1,590 proteínas ortólogas que corresponden al 44% del tamaño del proteoma más pequeño de la especie (Touchon et al. 2014a).

En la última década, los investigadores que se dedican al estudio de *Acinetobacter* se han enfocado en secuenciar genomas completos y genomas *draft* de cepas del complejo *Acinetobacter-baumannii-calcoaceticus*, predominantemente hospitalarias y provenientes de la

misma región. Son pocos los estudios que abarcan otras especies del género, lo cual ha tenido como resultado que los esquemas de MLST del género *Acinetobacter* estén limitados en cuanto a las cepas y su origen. Aunque se ha informado que las cepas de brotes particulares están geográficamente extendidas, se sabe poco sobre la diversidad, la relación filogenética y los grupos clonales de los microorganismos de este género, incluida *A. baumannii* que es la más estudiada.

Para entender la emergencia evolutiva de patógenos en el género *Acinetobacter*, es importante conocer bien su filogenia. Por lo tanto, el objetivo principal de este capítulo fue diseñar e implementar un esquema de análisis multilocus (MLSA, por sus siglas en inglés) a nivel de género. Esto fue posible gracias a la aportación de investigadores franceses (Touchon et al. 2014a), quienes secuenciaron 120 genomas de alta calidad de cepas de referencia de *Acinetobacter*. Estas se seleccionaron según su prevalencia, su genotipo y fenotipo, así como su origen (ambiental o clínico). Por lo tanto, este estudio tiene el conjunto más completo y diverso de genomas de alta calidad del género.

Nosotros aprovechamos estos datos para generar un MLSA a nivel de género, ya que hasta el momento existía un esquema de MLST solo para la especie *A. baumannii*. Nuestro MLSA se implementó con éxito en un grupo de 37 cepas provenientes de aislamientos ambientales recuperados de columna de agua y sedimentos de ríos de Morelos con nivel de contaminación contrastante. Esta colección es de sumo interés debido a la escasa información disponible sobre aislamientos de *Acinetobacter* de ambientes naturales.

3.2 Objetivos

- I. Desarrollar e implementar un esquema de MLSA a nivel de género para *Acinetobacter*
- II. Analizar si existen asociaciones significativas entre los linajes, los fenotipos de resistenciay los niveles de contaminación
- III. Llevar a cabo un análisis genómico para identificar determinantes de resistencia a antibióticos y de virulencia
- IV. Visualizar el perfil de plásmidos del género Acinetobacter

3.3 Métodos

3.3.1 Desarrollo e implementación de un esquema de MSLA

Para desarrollar el esquema de análisis de secuencias multilocus (MLSA) se identificaron genes ortólogos del genoma core de todas las secuencias de los genomas de alta calidad de las cepas de referencia de origen ambiental y clínico (Touchon et al. 2014a) mediante el paquete GET HOMOLOGUES (Contreras-Moreira and Vinuesa 2013). Utilizando el Primers4clades (Contreras-Moreira et al. 2009), se eligieron y diseñaron oligonucleótidos degenerados con base en los alineamientos múltiples de las secuencias de los siguientes genes: atpD, fusA, gyrB, infB, recA y rpoB de distribución universal en proteobacterias (Figura 15) (Vinuesa et al., 2010). Primers4clades es una herramienta para el diseño de oligonucleótidos degenerados derivados de motivos conservados de secuencias de alineamientos múltiples de proteínas usando el algoritmo CODEHOP (Consensus Degenerate Hybrid Oligonucleotide Primer). El servidor fue alimentado con las secuencias no redundantes (cd-hit 95%) de los loci atpD, fusA, gyrB, infB, recA y rpoB. El servidor nos mostró un conjunto no redundante de formulaciones de pares de oligonucleótidos clasificados de acuerdo a sus propiedades termodinámicas. El servidor revisa que los amplicones no se superpongan más del 80% (Figura 15) indicando, además la degeneración de los oligonucleótidos y el nivel de resolución filogenético para cada amplicon. De estos datos se seleccionaron los oligonucleótidos con atributos óptimos (quality = 100%).

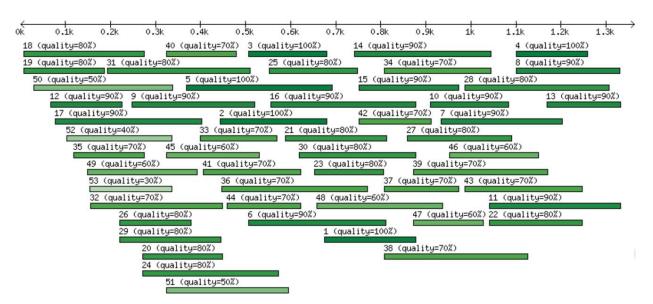


Figura 15. Mapa de distribución de los amplicones del gen *rpoB* del género *Acinetobacter*Los valores fueron calculados con base a las propiedades termodinámicas del par de oligonucleótidos. El gradiente

de color verde indica la calidad del oligonucleótido (entre más intenso el color el porcentaje es mayor).

3.4 Resultados

3.4.1 Propuesta de un nuevo esquema de MLSA a nivel de género para *Acinetobacter* y formulación de los oligonucleótidos

Se analizaron las distribuciones de longitud de rama y soporte de biparticiones de los árboles de máxima verosimilitud inferidos para cada amplicon. Ello reveló que los seis amplicones generan árboles con un buen soporte de rama y solo la filogenia de *gyrB* produce algunas ramas muy largas, como revela el test kde (**Tabla 9, Figura 16 y 17**).

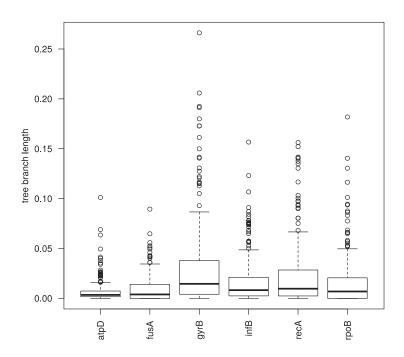


Figura 16. Distribución de longitud de rama de los seis oligonucleótidos seleccionados SH-like support values

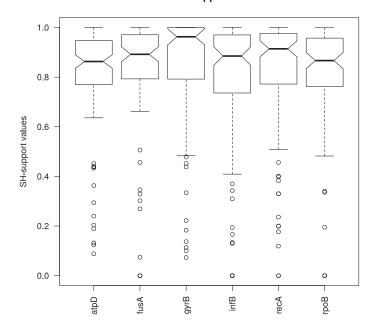


Figura 17. Valores de soporte de ramas para los seis oligonucleótidos propuestos en nuestro esquema

Tabla 9. Valores de kde obtenidos para los genes propuestos en nuestro esquema de MLST

| Gen | kde topología | kde longitud de rama |
|------|---------------|----------------------|
| atpD | NS | 0.057703881 |
| fusA | NS | 0.058270213 |
| gyrB | NS | 0.044970234* |
| infB | NS | 0.058145861 |
| recA | NS | 0.065666232 |
| rpoB | NS | 0.094711583 |

NS = no significativo *Valor significativo

3.4.2 Diversidad genética de *Acinetobacter* analizado con el nuevo esquema de MLSA: Identificación de nueve especies y tres posibles nuevas especies recuperadas de ríos de Morelos

Se recuperaron 37 aislamientos del género *Acinetobacter*, identificados inicialmente como tales en base a secuencias parciales del gen 16S rRNA. Estas cepas fueron sometidas a MLSA, con el nuevo esquema aquí desarrollado, pudiéndose identificar nueve especies conocidas (**Anexo 9**) y tres posibles especies nuevas, con base en la filogenia de máxima verosimilitud (ML) y las cepas de referencia ya mencionadas (Touchon et al. 2014a) sumando un total de 122 secuencias: *A. tandoii, A. schindleri, A. johnsonii, A. bereziniae, A. soli, A. baumannii, A. pittii, A. oleivorans, A. junii, A. beijerinckii, A. sp1, A. sp2, A. sp3. (Figura 18). La filogenia multilocus de especies que estimamos resultó ser altamente congruente con la filogenia genómica realizada por los investigadores franceses (Touchon et al. 2014a) y con la filogenia genómica que realizamos (Figura 25).*

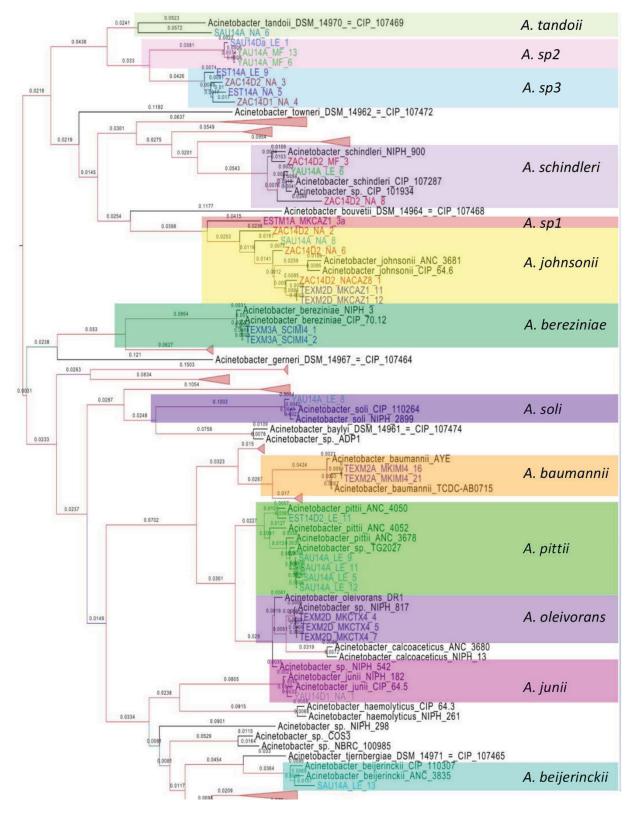


Figura 18. Filogenia de Máxima Verosimilitud (ML) con seis genes de MLSA diseñado para el género Acinetobacter

La filogenia muestra el desglose taxonómico de nuestros aislamientos (n=37) y 85 cepas de referencia de (Touchon et al. 2014b).

3.4.3 Asociación entre *Acinetobacter* y el hábitat de aislamiento

Para determinar la asociación entre cada especie de *Acinetobacter* y su hábitat de aislamiento, se llevó a cabo un análisis de chi² multivía (**Figura 19**), partiendo del supuesto (hipótesis nula) de que la prevalencia de *Acinetobacter spp.* es independiente del hábitat de aislamiento (columna de agua o sedimento) y del nivel de contaminación (bajo, intermedio o alto). El valor de p resultó ser 2.26⁻³, rechazando por tanto la hipótesis nula de no asociación de las especies con el hábitat y el nivel de contaminación. El análisis mostró que *A. johnsonii* y *A. oleivorans* están significativamente asociadas con sedimentos altamente contaminados; *A. pittii*, con columna de agua de sitios levemente contaminados y *A. schindleri*, con columna de agua medianamente contaminada. Cabe señalar que el número de individuos por especie fue bajo y, por lo tanto, se trata de un análisis preliminar.

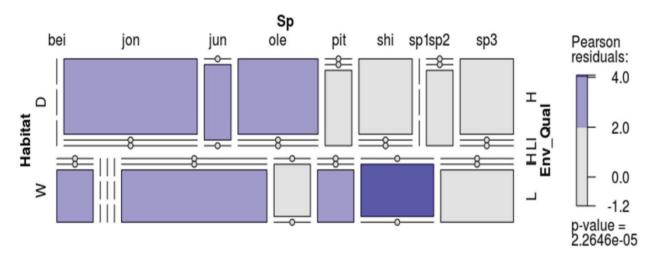


Figura 19. Gráfico de asociación de tres vías muestra los resultados del análisis χ^2 de las especies de *Acinetobacter* con respecto al hábitat y la calidad ambiental del sitio de donde fueron aisladas Hábitat (W=columna de agua, D= sedimentos); Nivel de contaminación (Env_Qual) (H=alto; L=bajo; l=Intermedio basados en el recuento de coliformes termotolerantes y *E. coli*, como se define en la Tabla 1). La barra de la gráfica representa los residuos de Pearson, el código de color y la altura de las barras indican el nivel de significancia y la magnitud de los residuos, el ancho muestra la proporción del tamaño de muestra.

3.4.4 Resistencia de *Acinetobacter* a antimicrobianos: *A. baumannii* y *A. bereziniae* son panresistentes

Se observó que los aislamientos correspondientes a las especies *A. oleivorans*, *A. schindleri* y *A. pitti* son susceptibles a la mayoría de los antimicrobianos probados. En contraste, las especies de *A. tandoii*, *A. soli*, *A. johnsonnii*, *A. sp1*, *A. sp2* y *A. sp3* son multirresistentes, mientras que *A. baumannii* y *A. bereziniae* son panresistentes. Estas resistencias se pueden observar en la **Figura** 4.

Además, se realizó un tamizado fenotípico para identificar la presencia de β-lactamasas de espectro extendido (BLEE) y de metalo-β-lactamasas (MBL), así como para hacer asociaciones de fenotipo-genotipo. Se identificó que A. *schindleri, A. johnsonii, A. bereziniae* y *A. sp3* expresan BLEE (Figura 20).

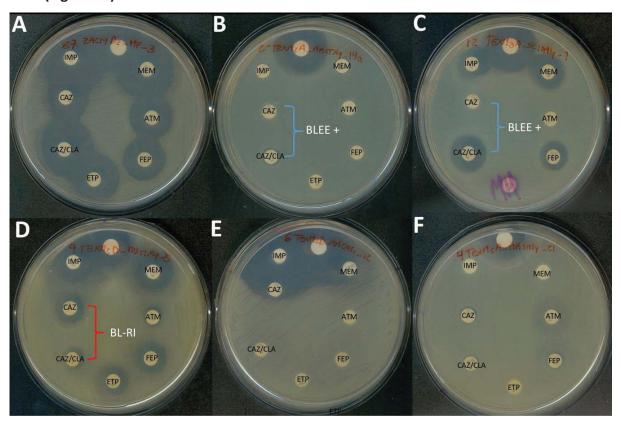


Figura 20. Diversidad de los fenotipos de susceptibilidad, resistencia y expresión de ß-lactamasas detectadas entre los aislamientos de *Acinetobacter* (A-F) ambientales mexicanos

IMI: Imipenem, CAZ: Ceftazidima, CAZ/CLA: Ceftazidima-ácido clavulánico, ETP: Ertapenem, FEP: Cefepime, ATM: Aztreonam, MEM: Meropenem A) Se muestra una cepa de *A. shindleri* susceptible a todos los antibióticos probados en el ensayo B) La imagen muestra a *Acinetobacter sp.* expresando una ß-lactamasa C) *A. berezinia*e expresando una ß-lactamasa D) *A. oleivorans* expresa una ß-lactamasa resistente a inhibidores E) *A. johnsonii* muestra resistencia a cefalosporinas (CAZ: Ceftazidima, FEP: Cefepime) y carbapenémicos (ETP: Ertapenem y MEM: Meropenem) y susceptibilidad a Imipenem (IMP) F) *A. baumanii* expresa resistencias a todos los antibióticos probados en el ensayo.

Para confirmar esto a nivel de genotipo, se llevó a cabo una amplificación por PCR de los genes de las familias más comunes de BLEE y MBL (*bla*-_{KPC}, *bla*-_{GES}, *bla*-_{CTX}, *bla*-_{SHV}, *bla*-_{TEM}, *bla*-_{NDM} y *bla*-_{VIM}) usando los primers descritos en el (**Anexo 13**). Sin embargo, no se identificaron amplicones en ninguna de las especies. Este dato sugiere que nuestros aislamientos con fenotipo positivo a BLEE, pueden corresponder a una variante nueva o poco usual.

3.4.5 Filogenia genómica y análisis genómico de 14 cepas ambientales mexicanas de *Acinetobacter*

Adicionalmente, se llevó a cabo un análisis genómico y filogenia genómica de 14 cepas de nuestra colección (**Figura 21, 26, Tabla 10 y 11**), abarcando 10 especies, que amplió y confirmó la información obtenida mediante los métodos anteriores. Por un lado, se identificó un gran número de genes relacionados con bombas de eflujo, lo que significa que nuestras cepas tienen más de un mecanismo de resistencia. Por otro lado, confirmamos que no hay una familia de BLEE o MBL conocida que coincida con el fenotipo encontrado en las cepas de TEXM2A_MKCTX4_14a, SAU14A_NA_8, TEXM3A_SCIMI4_1. Estas dos últimas cepas corresponden a *A. bereziniae*. Estos datos nos sugieren que estamos ante una BLEE nueva, de baja prevalencia o modificada.

La filogenia genómica de las 14 cepas de *Acinetobacter* ambientales es consistente con nuestra filogenia realizada a partir del esquema de MSLA aquí propuesto (**Figura 18**) y con la de (Touchon et al., 2014ª). Nuestra filogenia (**Figura 21 y 22**) muestra implicaciones taxonómicas relevantes y especies mal clasificadas del género. La implicación más relevante es que el complejo Acb de *Acinetobacter* propuesto por varios autores (Bouvet and Grimont 1986; Nemec et al. 2010; Cosgaya et al. 2016; Gerner-Smidt, Tjernberg, and Ursing 1991), no solo contiene 5 especies. El complejo también contiene a *A. oleivorans* y *A. lactucae*. En la filogenia también se puede observar que las genoespecies 2 y 3 corresponden a lo que denominamos complejo *A. tandoii*.

Tabla 10. Características de las secuencias de genomas de cepas ambientales del género Acinetobacter

| Especie | Estado Genoma | Tecnología secuencia | Num contigs | Num Plámidos | Nt Genoma | rRNA genes | tRNA | tmRNA | Genes | CDS | Sign pep | CRISPR |
|--|------------------|-------------------------|----------------|-----------------|--------------|---------------|------|-------|-------|------|-------------|--------|
| A. baumannii TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16 | Completo | MiSeq+MinION | 3 | 2 | 4166409 | 18 | 75 | 1 | 4087 | 3993 | 322 | none |
| <i>A. beijerinckii</i> SAU14A_LE_13 | Completo | MiSeq+MinION | 1 | 0 | 3449386 | 19 | 74 | 1 | 3274 | 3180 | 308 | 2 |
| A. bereziniae TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2 | Completo | MiSeq+MinION | 4 | 1 | 4989262 | 21 | 80 | 1 | 4805 | 4703 | 520 | 4 |
| <i>A. genosp2</i> SAU14Da_LE_1 | Completo | MiSeq+MinION | 1 | 0 | 3536848 | 21 | 81 | 1 | 3366 | 3263 | 310 | none |
| <i>A. genosp3</i> EST14A_LE_9 | gapped_chr | MiSeq | 2 | 0 | 3683970 | 5 | 66 | 1 | 3499 | 3427 | 330 | none |
| A. genosp3 ZAC14D2_NA_3 | Completo | MiSeq | 4 | 3 | 3789052 | 21 | 80 | 1 | 3766 | 3664 | 331 | none |
| A. johnsonii TEXM2D_MKCAZ1_11 | gapped_chr | MiSeq | 4 | 0 | 3403478 | 3 | 77 | 1 | 3339 | 3258 | 310 | none |
| A. johnsonii ZAC14D2_NA_2 | Completo_nonCirc | MiSeq+MinION | 6 | 5 | 3646670 | 21 | 85 | 1 | 3621 | 3514 | 292 | none |
| <i>A. juni</i> YAU14D1_NA_1 | Completo | MiSeq+MinION | 4 | 3 | 3358694 | 18 | 74 | 1 | 3155 | 3062 | 307 | 2 |
| A. oleivorans TEXM2D_MKCTX4_5 | Completo | MiSeq+MinION | 2 | 1 | 3956642 | 18 | 73 | 1 | 3740 | 3648 | 353 | none |
| A. lactucae EST14D2_LE_11 | gapped_chr | MiSeq | 1 | 0 | 3893979 | 5 | 63 | 1 | 3644 | 3575 | 328 | 2 |
| A. pittii SAU14A_LE_11 | Completo | MiSeq+MinION | 4 | 3 | 3963425 | 18 | 73 | 1 | 3932 | 3840 | 328 | none |
| A. schindleri ZAC14D2_MF_3 | gapped_chr | MiSeq | 9 | 4 | 3213851 | 5 | 73 | 1 | 3110 | 3031 | 251 | none |
| A. schindleri ZAC14D2_NA_8 | Completo | MiSeq+MinION | 3 | 2 | 3365928 | 21 | 86 | 1 | 3250 | 3142 | 288 | none |

Gapped_chr: cromosoma con gaps. Nt genoma: tamaño del genoma en nucleótidos, CDS: secuencias codificantes, Sign pep: péptidos señal.

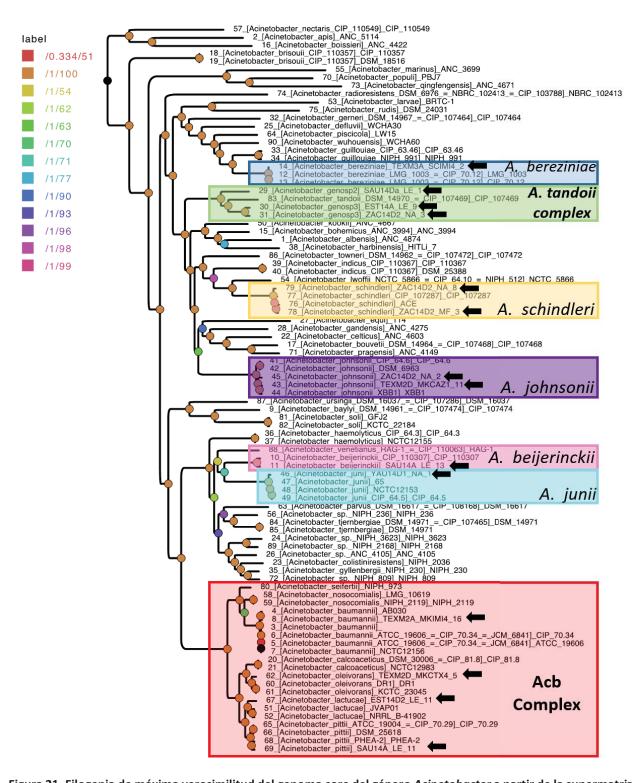


Figura 21. Filogenia de máxima verosimilitud del genoma core del género *Acinetobacter* a partir de la supermatriz obtenida por la concatenación de 834 alineamientos seleccionados con GET_PHYLOMARKERS

Los círculos de colores al inicio de las ramas denotan el nivel de soporte de las mismas (probabilidad posterior bayesiana/Bootstrap). Las flechas negras indican nuestras cepas. Los rectángulos de diferentes colores indican los clados donde se encuentran las especies de nuestra colección. La filogenia fue enraizada con *Acinetobacter nectaris*.

3.4.6 Elementos genéticos móviles en Acinetobacter

Se determinaron los perfiles de los plásmidos de las cepas encontradas. Se observó que las cepas A. sp2 y A. sp3 no contienen plásmidos, mientras que algunas especies, como A. pittii, contienen dos plásmidos. Por otro lado, las especies que presentan la mayor cantidad de plásmidos (de 5 a 8) son A. schindleri y A. johnsonii. Cabe señalar que el número de plásmidos fue significativamente mayor en los aislamientos recuperados de sitios contaminados (Figura 22). También se identificaron tres cepas con integrones: una mediante amplificación del gen Intl1 (TEXM2A MKCTX4 14a) y dos mediante amplificación de la región 5'-3' con los oligonucleótidos de (Anexo 13) (A. bereziniae TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2, y A. baumannii TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16). Mediante análisis genómicos se confirmó la presencia de integrón en dos de las cepas (A. bereziniae TEXM3A SCIMI4 2, y A. baumannii TEXM2A MKIMI4 16) (Figuras 23 y 24). El integrón de A. baumannii TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16 contiene los genes de resistencia rmtB (aminoglucósidos), folP-2 (sulfonamidas), antl1 (estreptomicina), cat-2 (cloranfenicol), aacA4 (aminoglucósidos), neo-2 (neomicina), emrE (aminoglucósidos) (Figura 23). El integrón de A. bereziniae TEXM3A SCIMI4 2 contiene los genes de resistencia folP-2 (sulfonamidas), antl1 (estreptomicina), ccrA gen que codifica una metalo-β-lactamasa (cefalosporinas y carbapenémicos), emrE-2 (aminoglucósidos) precedidos por el gen de la integrasa de tipo 1 (Figura 24).

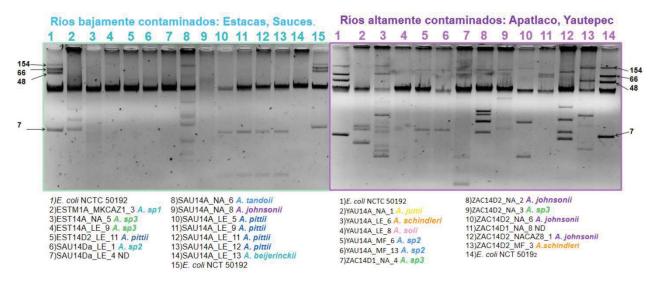


Figura 22. Perfil de plásmidos de asilamientos ambientes de especies pertenecientes al género *Acinetobacter* mediante la técnica (Kieser et al., 1984)

La foto del gel de electroforesis (izquierda) muestra los perfiles de plásmidos de cepas provenientes de sitios limpios. En el gel (derecho), los aislamientos pertenecen a muestras provenientes de ríos alta e intermediamente contaminados. Como un referente del peso molecular se utilizó a la cepa *E. coli* NCTC 50192 que contiene cuatro plásmidos que van de 7 a 154Kb.

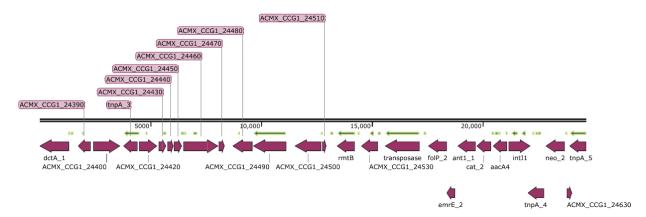


Figura 23. Integrón de clase I de *Acinetobacter_baumannii_*TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16

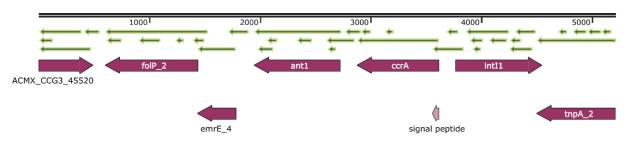


Figura 24. Integrón de clase I de Acinetobacter_bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2

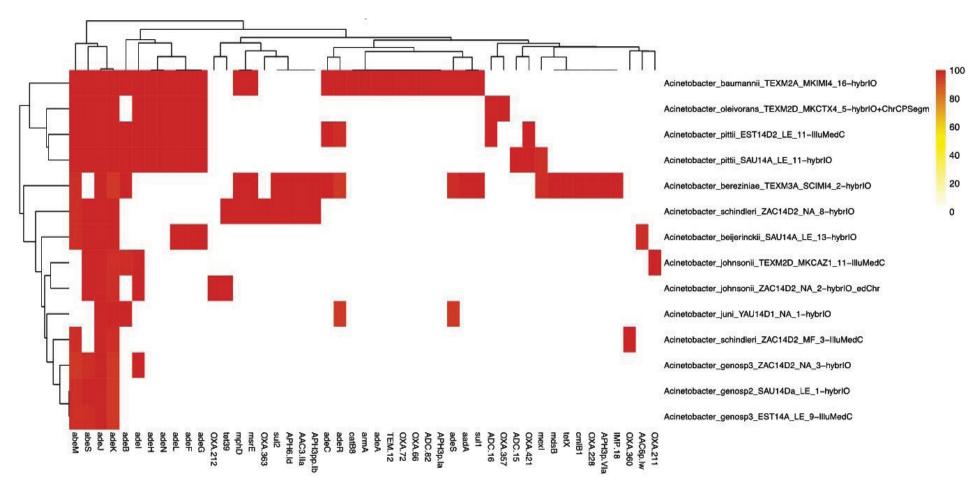


Figura 25. Genes de resistencia a antibióticos identificados en aislamientos ambientales mexicanos del género *Acinetobacter* contra la base de dados CARD Los cuadros rojos indican la presencia de algún gen de resistencia a antibióticos.

Tabla 11. Funciones y mecanismos de acción identificados en genes de resistencia a antibióticos de nuestros aislamientos ambientales mexicanos de *Acinetobacter* que cuentan con secuencia de su genoma completo (n=14)

| Especie | Gen | Función | Mecanismo de resistencia | Resistencia |
|--|------------|---|---|-------------------------------------|
| A. johnsonii_TEXM2D_MKCAZ1_11 | bla-OXA211 | β-lactamasa | Inactivación del antibiótico | Betalactámicos |
| A. beijerinckii_SAU14A_LE_13 | аас6р | Acetilación del antibiótico aminoglucósido en el grupo amino en la posición 6 ' | Inactivación del antibiótico | Aminoglucósidos |
| A. shindleri_ZAC14D2_MF_3 | bla-OXA360 | β-lactamasa | Inactivación del antibiótico | Betalactámicos |
| A. bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2 | bla-IMP18 | Carbapenemasa | Inactivación del antibiótico | Cefalosporinas y carbapenémicos |
| A. bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2 | aph3p.Via | Aminoglucósido acetil transferasa | Alteración del sitio blanco | Aminoglucósidos |
| A. bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2 | bla-OXA228 | Oxacilinasa | Inactivación del antibiótico | Betalactámicos |
| A. bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2 | cmlB1 | Fosfotransferasa | Sistema de expulsión de tipo MFS | Macrólidos |
| A. bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2, | tetX | Monooxigenasa | Monooxigensasa dependiente de flavina | Tetraciclina |
| A. bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2 | mdsB | Proteína de membrana interna | Sistema de expulsión de tipo RND (MdsABC) | Fenicol, carbapenem, cefalosporinas |
| A. bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2, | mexl | Proteína de membrana interna | Sistema de expulsión de tipo RND (MexGHI-OpmD) | Fluoroquinolonas, tetraciclinas |
| A. pittii_EST14D2_LE_11, A. pittii_SAU14A_LE_11 | bla-OXA421 | Oxacilinasa | Inactivación del antibiótico | Betalactámicos |
| A. pittii_SAU14A_LE_11 | bla-ADC15 | β-lactamasa | Inactivación del antibiótico | Cefalosporinas |
| A. oleivorans_TEXM2D_MKCTX4_5 | bla-OXA357 | Oxacilinasa | Inactivación del antibiótico | Betalactámicos |
| A. oleivorans_TEXM2D_MKCTX4_5, A. pittii_EST14D2_LE_11, A. pittii_SAU14A_LE_11 | bla-ADC16 | β-lactamasa | Inactivación del antibiótico | Cefalosporinas |
| A. bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2, A. baumannii_TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16 | sul1 | Dehidropteroato sintasa | Alteración del sitio blanco | Sulfonas y sulfonamidas |
| A. bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2, A. baumannii_TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16 | aadA | Aminoglicosido nucleotidyltrnasferasa | Alteración del sitio blanco | Aminoglucósidos |
| A. juni_YAU14D1_NA_1, A. baumannii_TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16 | adeS | Sensor quinasa | Sistema de expulsión de tipo RND (AdeABCRS) | Tetraciclina, glicilciclina |
| A. baumannii_TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16 | aph3p.la | Aminoglucósido fosfotransferasa | Alteración del sitio blanco | Aminoglucósidos |
| A. baumannii_TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16 | bla-ADC82 | β-lactamasa | Inactivación del antibiótico | Cefalosporinas |
| A. baumannii_TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16 | bla-OXA66 | β-lactamasa | Inactivación del antibiótico | Betalactámicos |
| A. baumannii_TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16 | bla-OXA72 | β-lactamasa | Inactivación del antibiótico | Betalactámicos |
| A. baumannii_TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16 | bla-TEM12 | β-lactamasa | Inactivación del antibiótico | Cefalosporinas |
| A. baumannii_TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16 | adeA | Proteína de fusión de membrana | Proteína de fusión de membrana | Tetraciclina, glicilciclina |
| A. baumannii_TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16 | armA | Metiltransferasa 16S rRNA | Alteración del sitio blanco | Aminoglucósidos |

Tabla 11. Funciones y mecanismos de acción identificados en genes de resistencia a antibióticos de nuestros aislamientos ambientales mexicanos de Acinetobacter que cuentan con secuencia de su genoma completo (n=14)

| Especie | Gen | Función | Mecanismo de resistencia | Resistencia |
|---|------------|--|--|--|
| A. baumannii_TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16 | catB8 | Cloranfenicol acetiltransferasa | Inactivación del antibiótico | Fenicoles |
| A. baumannii_TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16, A. bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2, A. juni_YAU14D1_NA_1, A. pittii_SAU14A_LE_11 | adeR | Regulador positivo del sistema AdeABC | Subunidad del complejo de expulsión AdeABC | Tetraciclina, glicilciclina |
| A. bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2, | adeC | Proteína de factor de membrano externa | Sistema de expulsión de tipo RND (AdeABCRS) | Tetraciclina, glicilciclina |
| A. bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2, A. shindleri_ZAC14D2_NA_8 | aph3pp.lb | Fosfotransferasa y platicamos | Alteración del sitio blanco | Aminoglucósidos |
| A. bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2, A. shindleri_ZAC14D2_NA_8 | aac3.Ila | Aminoglucósido acetil transferasa | Alteración del sitio blanco | Aminoglucósidos |
| A. bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2, A. shindleri_ZAC14D2_NA_8 | aph6.Id | Aminoglucósido acetil transferasa | Alteración del sitio blanco | Aminoglucósidos |
| A. bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2, A. shindleri_ZAC14D2_NA_8 | sul2 | Dehidropteroato sintasa | Alteración del sitio blanco | Sulfonamidas |
| A. shindleri_ZAC14D2_NA_8 | bla-OXA363 | β-lactamasa | Inactivación del antibiótico | Betalactámicos |
| A. bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2, A. shindleri_ZAC14D2_NA_8, A. baumannii_TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16 | msrE | ATPasa de tipo ABC | Bomba de expulsión de tipo ABC | Macrólidos |
| A. bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2, A. shindleri_ZAC14D2_NA_8 | mphD | Fosfotransferasa | Fosfotransferasa de macrólidos (MPH) | Macrólidos |
| A.shindleri_ZAC14D2_NA_8, A. johnsonii_ZAC14D2_NA_2 | tet39 | Bomba de eflujo | Sistema de expulsión tipo MFS | Tetraciclinas |
| A. johnsonii_ZAC14D2_NA_2 | bla-OXA212 | β-lactamasa | Inactivación del antibiótico | Betalactámicos |
| A. baumannii_TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16, A. bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2, A. pittii_SAU14A_LE_11, A. pittii_EST14D2_LE11, A. oleivorans_TEXM2D_MKCTX4_5, A. beijerinckii_SAU14A_LE_13, | adeG | Proteína de membrana interna | Sistema de explulsión de tipo RND (AdeFGH) | Tetraciclina, glicilciclina |
| A. baumannii_TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16, A. bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2, A. pittii_SAU14A_LE_11, A. pittii_EST14D2_LE11, A. oleivorans_TEXM2D_MKCTX4_5, A. beijerinckii_SAU14A_LE_13, | adeF | Proteína de fusión de membrana | Sistema de explulsión de tipo RND (AdeFGH) | Tetraciclina, fluoroquinolonas |
| A. baumannii_TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16, A. bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2, A. pittii_SAU14A_LE_11, A. pittii_EST14D2_LE_11, A. oleivorans_TEXM2D_MKCTX4_5, A. beijerinckii_SAU14A_LE_13, A. sp3_ZAC14D2_NA_3, A. johnsonii_TEXM2D_MKCAZ1_11, | adeL | Regulador del sistema RND (AdeFGH) | Sistema de explulsión de tipo RND (AdeFGH) | Tetraciclina, fluoroquinolonas |
| A. baumannii_TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16, A. bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2, A. pittii_SAU14A_LE_11, A. pittii_EST14D2_LE_11, A. oleivorans_TEXM2D_MKCTX4_5 | adeN | Represor del sistema AdelJK | Sistema de explulsión de tipo RND (AdeIJK) | Macrólidos, efalosporinas, carbapenémicos, tetraciclina, fluoroquinolonas, fenicoles |
| A. baumannii_TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16, A. bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2, A. pittii_SAU14A_LE_11, A. pittii_EST14D2_LE_11, A. oleivorans_TEXM2D_MKCTX4_5 | adeH | Proteína de membrana externa | Sistema de expulsión de tipo RND (AdeFGH) | Tetraciclina, fluoroquinolonas |
| A. baumannii_TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16, A. bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2, A. pittii_SAU14A_LE_11, A. pittii_EST14D2_LE_11, A. oleivorans_TEXM2D_MKCTX4_5 | adel | Proteína de fusión de membrana | Sistema de explulsión de tipo RND (AdelJK) | Macrólidos, cefalosporinas, carbapenémicos, tetraciclina, fluoroquinolonas, fenicoles |

Tabla 11. Funciones y mecanismos de acción identificados en genes de resistencia a antibióticos de nuestros aislamientos ambientales mexicanos de *Acinetobacter* que cuentan con secuencia de su genoma completo (n=14)

| Especie | Gen | Función | Mecanismo de resistencia | Resistencia |
|--|------|--|--|--|
| A. baumannii_TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16, A. bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2, A. pittii_SAU14A_LE_11, A. pittii_EST14D2_LE_11, A. juni_YAU14D1_NA_1, A. johnsonii_TEXM2D_MKCAZ1_11, | adeB | Subunidad del complejo de expulsión AdeABC | Sistema de expulsión de tipo RND (AdeABCRS) | Tetraciclina, glicilciclina |
| A. baumannii_TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16, A. oleivorans_TEXM2D_MKCTX4_5, A. pittii_EST14D2_LE_11, A. pittii_SAU14A_LE_11, A. bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2, A.shindleri_ZAC14D2_NA_8, A. beijerinckii_SAU14A_LE_13, A. johnsonii_TEXM2D_MKCAZ1_11, A. johnsonii_ZAC14D2_NA_2, A. juni_YAU14D1_NA_1, A.shindleri_ZAC14D2_MF_3, A. sp3_ZAC14D2_NA_3, A. sp2_SAU14Da_LE_1, A. sp3_EST14A_LE_9 | adeK | Proteína de membrana externa | Sistema de explulsión de tipo RND (AdeIJK) | Macrólidos, cefalosporinas, carbapenémicos, tetraciclina, fluoroquinolonas, fenicoles |
| A. baumannii_TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16, A. oleivorans_TEXM2D_MKCTX4_5, A. pittii_EST14D2_LE_11, A. pittii_SAU14A_LE_11, A. bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2, A.shindleri_ZAC14D2_NA_8, A. beijerinckii_SAU14A_LE_13, A. johnsonii_TEXM2D_MKCAZ1_11, A. johnsonii_ZAC14D2_NA_2, A. juni_YAU14D1_NA_1, A.shindleri_ZAC14D2_MF_3, A. sp3_ZAC14D2_NA_3, A. sp2_SAU14Da_LE_1, A. sp3_EST14A_LE_9 | adeJ | Proteína de membrana interna | Sistema de explulsión de tipo RND (AdeIJK) | Macrólidos, cefalosporinas, carbapenémicos, tetraciclina, fluoroquinolonas, fenicoles |
| A. baumannii_TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16, A. oleivorans_TEXM2D_MKCTX4_5, A. pittii_EST14D2_LE_11, A. pittii_SAU14A_LE_11, A. shindleri_ZAC14D2_NA_8, A. beijerinckii_SAU14A_LE_13, A. johnsonii_TEXM2D_MKCAZ1_11, A. johnsonii_ZAC14D2_NA_2, A. sp3_ZAC14D2_NA_3, A. sp2_SAU14Da_LE_1, A. sp3_EST14A_LE_9 | abeS | Proteína de expulsión | Sistema de expulsión de tipo SMR | Macrólidos |
| A. baumannii_TEXM2A_MKIMI4_16, A. oleivorans_TEXM2D_MKCTX4_5, A. pittii_EST14D2_LE_11, A. pittii_SAU14A_LE_11, A. bereziniae_TEXM3A_SCIMI4_2, A.shindleri_ZAC14D2_NA_8, A. beijerinckii_SAU14A_LE_13, A.shindleri_ZAC14D2_MF_3, A. sp3_ZAC14D2_NA_3, A. sp2_SAU14Da_LE_1, A. sp3_EST14A_LE_9 | abeM | Proteína de expulsión | Sistema de expulsión tipo MATE | Fluoroquinolonas, triclosan |

(Jia et al. 2017)

3.4.7 Asociación de las características ambientales y genéticas de 14 cepas de *Acinetobacter* mexicanas

La filogenia genómica de las 14 cepas de *Acinetobacter* ambientales muestra una diversidad importante de especies del género. Podemos observar al menos tres aspectos importantes: i) La característica de panresistente no está asociada exclusivamente en el complejo *Acinetobacter calcoaceticus-baumannii*. Este atributo lo podemos observar muy marcado en *A. johnsonii*, *A. bereziniae* y *A. junii especies* que en los últimos años se han descrito como relevantes en la clínica (Regeen et al. 2014; (Feng et al. 2016); Brovedan et al. 2016; Chagas et al. 2015) ii) *A. baumanni* y *A. bereziniae* especies con fenotipo panresistente son las únicas que tienen integrones de clase 1 y fueron aisladas de sitios altamente contaminados iii) Las especies con mayor número de plásmidos fueron recuperadas de sitios altamente contaminados (**Figura 26**).

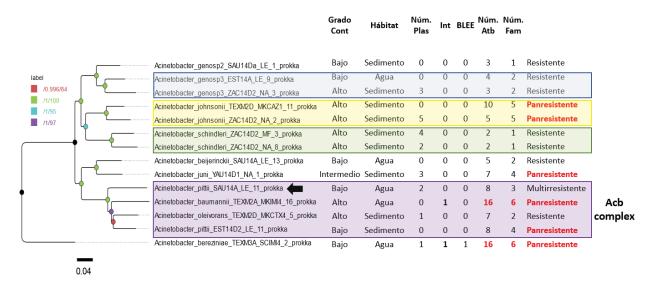


Figura 26. Filogenia genómica de 14 cepas selectas de Acinetobacter ambientales mexicanas

Filogenia de máxima verosimilud del genoma core de Acinetobacter encontrada en la búsqueda de IQ-TREE basada en la supermatriz obtenida por concatenación de 834 alineamientos. Los círculos de colores al inicio de las ramas denotan el nivel de soporte de las ramas. El rectángulo de color morado enmarca las especies que forman el complejo de *Acinetobacter*. Las columnas de lado derecho de la filogenia muestran un resumen con las características de cada cepa. La primera columna Grado Cont= Grado de contaminación fecal del río, Hábitat de donde se obtuvo la cepa, Núm Plas = número de plásmidos identificados en cada cepa. Int = Presencia o ausencia del gen de la integrasa tipo 1. BLEE = presencia o ausencia del fenotipo de β -lactamasa de espectro extendido, Núm Atb = es el número de antibióticos individuales a los que mostró resistencia cada aislamiento probado, Núm Fam = es el número de familias de antibióticos a los que fueron resistentes cada uno de los aislamientos probados. Finalmente hacemos énfasis de su nivel de resistencia.

El esquema de MLSA que desarrollamos en este trabajo puede ser de gran utilidad en diferentes áreas, como la industria, la biorremediación y la clínica. En esta última podría implementarse para elegir adecuadamente la terapia de los pacientes para llevar una vigilancia epidemiológica certera. La diversidad de cepas que aislamos en este trabajo es relevante porque hay muy pocos estudios sobre las especies no-baumannii del género *Acinetobacter*.

A continuación, describiremos los detalles de su aislamiento y su participación en las diferentes áreas antes mencionadas.

Acinetobacter tandoii se obtuvo de la columna de agua de un sitio limpio. Esta especie se ha estudiado por su potencial para la biorremediación dada su capacidad para degradar hidrocarburos aromáticos policíclicos (J. Li et al. 2017). En nuestra filogenia también se observan dos posibles nuevas especias del género, las cuales designamos como genoespecies dos y tres. De la genoespecie dos, se obtuvieron tres aislamientos provenientes de sedimentos limpios y columna de agua medianamente contaminada. Y de la genoespecie tres, se obtuvieron tres aislamientos provenientes de columna de agua limpia y sedimentos contaminados. El análisis del genoma core de las cepas y la incorporación de nuevas cepas de referencia nos permitió identificar que las cepas que denominamos genoespecie 2 y 3 realmente corresponde a lo que nosotros denominamos Acintetobacter tandoii complex resaltado en el rectángulo color verde de la Figura 21.

Tres de nuestros aislamientos correspondieron a *Acinetobacter schindleri* y están asociados a sedimentos contaminados y agua medianamente contaminada. Esta especie está relacionada con infecciones en humanos. Aunque su prevalencia es baja, es importante destacar que puede contener genes de multirresistencia a antibióticos, como *bla*-NDM-1 (Montaña et al. 2018).

Recuperamos tres aislamientos de *Acinetobacter johsonnii* a partir de columna de agua y de sedimento en los tres ambientes (limpio, medianamente contaminado y altamente contaminado), sugiriendo que tiene una amplia distribución en ambientes acuáticos. Se ha observado que esta especie también es un buen candidato para su uso en biorremediación (Jiang, Qi, and Zhang 2018). Es la especie donde identificamos un mayor número de plásmidos (5). Se ha identificado una cepa de *A. jonhsonnii* con nueve plásmidos conteniendo diversas carbapenemasas (NDM-1, OXA-58 y PER-1), es por ello que lo han propuesto como una especie que puede generar varias plataformas para mediar la resistencia antimicrobiana (Feng et al. 2016). Dentro de nuestros aislamientos identificamos la genoespecie 1 que por la filogenia de MLSA (**Figura 21**) está relacionada con *A. jonhsonnii* y presenta dos plásmidos.

Dos aislamientos correspondieron a *Acinetobacter bereziniae* y se aislaron de columna de agua altamente contaminada. Esta especie se aisló por primera vez de muestras clínicas de humanos (Nemec et al., 2010). Principalmente en aislamientos de América Latina, se ha

reportado que algunas cepas tienen carbapenemasas tipo OXA (Zander et al. 2014) y MBL como *bla*- NDM-1, ambas identificadas en plásmidos (Brovedan et al. 2016; Chagas et al. 2015).

Acinetobacter soli es otra de las especies identificadas en este estudio. Se recuperó de un aislamiento de columna de agua altamente contaminada. La especie fue aislada por primera vez del suelo de un bosque de Corea (D. Kim et al. 2008) y también se ha identificado en piojos de animales domésticos (Kumsa et al. 2012). A pesar de que los primeros reportes indicaron que el microorganismo provenía de fuentes ambientales, ya existen reportes de la especie en ambientes clínicos. Se documentó un brote causado por A. soli en una unidad de cuidados intensivos de neonatos (Pellegrino et al. 2011) y en China, la bacteria infectó a un paciente que murió luego de 65 días en tratamiento. Esta cepa era multirresistente y contenía las β-lactamasas bla-OXA-58, bla-IMP-1, bla-NDM-1, bla-TMB-2 (Cao et al. 2015).

Dos de nuestros aislamientos fueron clasificados como *A. baumannii* y pertenecen a la clona II (de las más prevalentes a nivel mundial). Se aislaron de columna de agua del río Apatlaco en Temixco. Esta es la especie de mayor relevancia clínica en el género debido a su multirresistencia y su incidencia en los nosocomios. Son muy pocos los reportes de la especie en el medio ambiente extrahospitalarios. Se ha aislado de muestras de agua del río Sena en París (Girlich, Poirel, and Nordmann 2010), de aguas residuales en Brasil (Ferreira et al. 2011) y en China (Zhang 2013), así como de plantas de tratamiento de aguas residuales en Croacia (Hrenovic et al. 2016). Por lo tanto, es muy poco lo que se sabe de la especie en ambientes naturales. Además, estos estudios han trabajado con una sola cepa, pues no se han encontrado poblaciones de la bacteria. Tampoco se ha reportado su presencia en ambientes naturales limpios, lo cual sugiere que su reservorio no está en ambientes naturales.

También aislamos cuatro cepas de *Acinetobacter pittii*, pertenecientes exclusivamente a sitios limpios, tanto de columna de agua como de sedimento. Sin embargo, *A. pittii* ha sido aislada de aguas residuales y es un degradador eficiente de indol y sus derivados y, por lo tanto, un excelente candidato para ser usada en biorremediación (Z. Yang et al. 2017).

Una de nuestras cepas corresponde a *A. lactucae*. Esta especie fue aislada por primera vez de una muestra de lechuga de un supermercado (Rooney, Dunlap, and Flor-Weiler 2016). La cepa EST14D2_LE_11 primeramente fue identificada como *A. pittii* en la filogenia de MLST (**Figura 18**). Sin embargo, en la filogenia genómica (**Figura 21**), se identifica como *A. lactucae* especie hermana de *A. pittii* y por lo tanto está formando parte del complejo Acb.

Por otro lado, *A. oleivorans* se asiló solo de los sedimentos de ríos altamente contaminados. También se ha encontrado en arrozales en Corea del Sur y se ha observado que es capaz de crecer en diésel y petróleo y adherirse a ellos, lo cual la podría hacer útil en procesos de biorremediación (Jung et al. 2011).

De **A. junnii** solo se obtuvo un aislamiento proveniente de sedimentos medianamente contaminados. Es un patógeno oportunista que se ha reportado en hospitales como causante de infecciones en humanos. Además tiene genes de resistencia a antibióticos como *bla*-NDM-1 y *bla*-OXA-58 (Regeen et al. 2014). En estudios retrospectivos del género, se ha observado que coexiste con otra especie del mismo género, lo cual ha llevado a sugerir la transferencia de genes entre ambas especies (Baron, Dubourg, and Rolain 2018).

Una de nuestras cepas se clasificó como *Acinetobacter beijerinckii* y se aisló de columna de agua limpia. Esta especie se ha encontrado también en muestras clínicas humanas, así como en algunos animales, suelo y agua (Nemec et al. 2009). También se ha estudiado su potencial como agente de biorremediación de ambientes marinos, debido a su capacidad de degradación de petróleo crudo (Zhao et al. 2016).

3.5 Discusión

Un aspecto importante de nuestro trabajo fue el estudio de los elementos genéticos móviles (plásmidos e integrones) de las especies que aislamos. Nuestra metodología, a saber, el muestreo en sitios con grados contrastantes de contaminación, permitió comparar las especies bacterianas de origen diverso. Pudimos observar que las bacterias provenientes de los ambientes más contaminados contienen una cantidad de plásmidos mucho mayor que aquellas provenientes de ambientes más limpios. Esto es debido a que identificamos una distribución diferencial de especies de *Acinetobacter* en los diferentes sitios de muestreo.

El estudio de plásmidos en el género es limitado y está enfocado principalmente a la especie *A. baumannii* aislada de ambientes clínicos. En estos estudios es relevante destacar que se trata de plásmidos movilizables a altas frecuencias y con genes que codifican carbapenemasas (enzimas que hidrolizan antibióticos carbapenémicos) y metales como mercurio (Hamidian, Ambrose, and Hall 2016). Las carbapenemasas son de suma relevancia para los servicios de salud ya que representa una carga económica fuerte debido a las limitaciones del tratamiento y su rápida propagación. Esta es una de las razones por la cual es muy importante conocer la evolución y diseminación de plásmidos en el género. Además, existen autores que proponen a

Acinetobacter spp. como el reservorio y origen de la carbapenemasa NDM-1 debido a su capacidad de transferir esta enzima a otras enterobacteria (Toleman et al. 2012). Esta idea ha sido sustentada con datos in vitro de un de un estudio realizado con cepas de Acinetobacter spp. del Sur de Corea sobre la transferencia de plásmidos y la estabilidad donde sugieren que estos plásmidos podrían haber contribuido a la propagación de bla-NDM1 en Enterobacteriacea (Sung et al. 2014). Otros autores sustentan esta idea ya que han caracterizado plásmidos transferibles conteniendo la carbapenemasa NDM-1 en A. soli y A. pittii e identificado su movilidad entre el género (Huang et al. 2015). De igual forma a A. pittii conteniendo plásmidos con grupos de incompatibilidad nuevos, carbapenemasas tipo OXA y con la capacidad de transferirse con otras especies del género (Silva et al. 2018).

Investigadores en América Latina también han estudiado la transmisión de plásmidos conteniendo carbapenemasas entre *A. baumannii* y otras enterobacterias, sin embargo, los datos respecto a los plásmidos caracterizados por los autores sugieren que los plásmidos de *Acinetobacter spp.* no tienen una buena adecuación en enterobacterias (Marquez-Ortiz et al. 2017).

En otro análisis de genómica comparada con cepas de *Acinetobacter spp*. clínicas y ambientales (agua y suelo), se sugiere que plásmidos de tipo Rep_3 se pueden transferir entre *Acinetobacter spp*. de diferentes ambientes, así como replicarse en bacterias de otros géneros incluso phyla. De igual forma, en el análisis se identificaron nuevos plásmidos (Salto et al. 2018). Estos trabajos sustentan por un lado la importancia de estudiar especies *no-baumannii* y por otro lado el estudiar cepas ambientales.

Con respecto a los integrones, en este estudio pudimos observar que las cepas que los contienen (*A. baumannii* y *A. bereziniae*) son resistentes a las cinco familias de antibióticos probadas (β-lactámicos, aminoglucósidos, fenoles, tetraciclina y fluoroquinolona). Los integrones codifican para determinantes de resistencia de al menos 5 familias de antibióticos (estreptomicina, cloranfenicol, aminoglucósidos, β-lactámicos y sulfonamidas). De igual forma se trata de integrones con una estructura poco convencional lo que nos sugiere que estos integrones pueden estar subestimados en el género. Otros estudios han identificado una prevalencia del 89.3% de integrones de clase I en 56 aislamientos de *Acinetobacter spp* (*A. baumannii* (n=30), *A. bereziniae* (n=4), *A. nosocomilis* (n=5) y *A. pittii* (n=17) de India y Pakistan. Estos integrones contienen genes de resistencia a cloranfenicol, aminoglucósidos y β-lactámicos) (L. S. Jones et al. 2015). En China se han reportado una prevalencia de integrones del 69.9% de

un total de 425 aislamientos clínicos de *A. baumannii*. Los arreglos de los integrones muestran genes que codifican resistencia a cloranfenicol, aminoglucósidos, y trimetoprim (Jing Chen et al. 2015). Son pocos los estudios respecto a integrones en especies *no- baumannii* del género y no se conoce mucho de estas plataformas en aislamientos ambientales. Un dato importante a señalar es que nuestro integrón de *A. bereziniae* y otros reportados por (L. S. Jones et al. 2015) contienen carbapenemasas. Es por ello de suma importancia seguir estudiando este tipo de plataformas y entender su diseminación entre especies del género *Acinetobacter* y *Enterobacteriaceae*.

Es necesario destacar que los estudios que se llevan a cabo sobre este género suelen centrarse en *A. baumannii* por su atributo de multirresistencia y alta prevalencia en los nosocomios. Sin embargo, aquí demostramos que hay otras especies con el mismo atributo (*A. bereziniae*, *A. johnsonni* y *A. soli*). Aunque nosotros no las hayamos aislado de muestras humanas, otros estudios ya han demostrado su capacidad de provocar infecciones en humanos (L. S. Jones et al. 2015; Feng et al. 2016). En nuestro estudio, las cepas de estas tres especies se recuperaron de ambientes altamente contaminados. Esto sugiere que la contaminación antropogénica está determinando la selección de bacterias con multirresistencia adquirida, independientemente de su resistencia intrínseca.

Respecto a los genes de resistencia identificados en los genomas del estudio se observa una alta prevalencia de determinantes de resistencia a aminoglucósidos, seguida por genes que codifican a enzimas que hidrolizan antibióticos β -lactámicos. Estas prevalencias se han descrito en otros trabajos (Espinal, Roca, and Vila 2011).

Finalmente, es pertinente enfatizar la importancia de llevar a cabo estudios en las especies *no-baumanni* de este género, ya que *A. baumannii* no es la única multirresistente a antimicrobianos y capaz de provocar infecciones en humanos. Este tipo de estudios solo será posible si la delimitación de especies se hace correctamente. En este sentido, el MLSA que nosotros propusimos resulta ser una herramienta muy eficiente para lograrlo.

3.6 Conclusión

El esquema de MLSA que estamos proponiendo aquí permite la correcta clasificación de las especies del género *Acinetobacter*. El hecho más relevante a partir de la aplicación de este esquema es que *A. baumanni* no es la única especie multirresistente y no constituye, en realidad, un complejo, ya que pudimos distinguir claramente las diferentes especies del género con un

soporte de rama significativo y formando clados muy bien separados unos de otros por ramas profundas. Además, la correcta delimitación de las especies sienta las bases para futuros estudios en el área de la clínica (tratamientos correctos) y la industria (biorremediación).

3.7 Perspectivas

- Implementar el esquema de MLSA utilizando cepas de otras especies del género con fenotipos diversos y provenientes de otros sitios de aislamiento
- Análisis de genómica comparada de cepas selectas
- Llevar a cabo análisis de virulencia en el hospedero alternativo Galleria mellonela
- Analizar y caracterizar los elementos genéticos móviles (plásmidos e integrones)
- Analizar la capacidad de transferencia de los elementos genéticos móviles
- Identificar y caracterizar los determinantes genéticos de fenotipos de producción de BLEE
 y MBL

7. Conclusiones generales

A partir de muestras ambientales, recolectadas en ríos del estado de Morelos, generamos una colección muy diversa de aislados bacterianos de los géneros *Stenotrophomonas* y *Acinetobacter*. Mediante estrategias de genética de poblaciones y de filogenética, pudimos delimitar robustamente las especies de estos géneros. Esta delimitación de especies nos permitió, a su vez, hacer asociaciones de genotipo con fenotipos de resistencia a antibióticos. Así, pudimos reconocer las especies verdaderamente multirresistentes. Esto tiene implicaciones importantes en diferentes áreas. En la clínica, permite la elección de los tratamientos más indicados y apoya el uso correcto de los antimicrobianos. En la industria, permite identificar las cepas que podrían usarse en procesos de biorremediación, en la generación de antibióticos y metabolitos secundarios, en las intervenciones de biocontrol y en la agricultura, como factores de crecimiento vegetal.

Nuestro estudio también nos permitió evaluar el impacto que tiene la contaminación antropogénica en la multirresistencia a los antimicrobianos. Observamos que las cepas multirresistentes están asociadas a ambientes altamente contaminados y tienen una mayor cantidad de elementos genéticos móviles, responsables de la multirresistencia.

Por todo lo anterior, nuestra investigación proporciona evidencia que puede servir como base para el desarrollo de políticas en diversas áreas del quehacer humano. Tanto en el ámbito de la salud como en la agricultura y la ganadería, se podrá reducir la selección de cepas multirresistentes mediante el uso adecuado de los antibióticos, por un lado, y de las aguas residuales, por otro.

8. Materiales y métodos

8.1 Sitios de muestreo

Los sitios se clasificaron en tres categorías de contaminación: **baja** (Sauces y Estacas), **intermedia** (Yautepec) y **alta** (Temixco y Zacatepec) (**Tabla 1**).

Los microorganismos fueron recuperados de sedimentos y columnas de agua de seis sitios correspondientes a cuatro ríos y dos arroyos con diferentes niveles de contaminación antropogénica del estado de Morelos (Tabla 1: Artículo 1 *Stenotrophomonas*). Los cuerpos de agua se clasificaron en tres según su nivel de contaminación fecal: 1) bajo (L), intermedio (I), alto (H). Esto se determinó con base en cuentas por triplicado de coliformes termotolerantes (TTCs) en mFC agar (Oxoid) y *E. coli* termotolerantes (TTEc) en agar m-TEC modificado (USEPA, 2002). Las muestras de agua se tomaron en recipientes estériles de 1 litro. Las muestras de sedimento (dos de cada sitio) se tomaron con "core" a profundidad de entre 2 y 20cm. El primer paso fue la filtración por membrana (0.45 µm) mediante método APHA (2005).

Se midieron 6 parámetros físico-químicos (pH, salinidad, temperatura, total de solutos disueltos, óxido-reducción y oxígeno disuelto) de la columna de agua utilizando un instrumento multiparamétrico HANNA H19828 en modo de medida continua durante 1 minuto a lo largo de un transepto de 10 metros (Fig. S2: Artículo *Stenotrophomonas*).

Se tomaron 3 muestras de sedimento (3 por sitio, a lo largo de 3 metros lineales), fueron tomadas de los mismos sitios en cores de plástico estériles con una profundidad de 3 a 5cm. Las muestras fueron mantenidas en hielo hasta su procesamiento en un lapso de 4 a 8hrs (APHA, 2005).

El muestro se realizó al final de la estación seca (abril-mayo), entre 2012 y 2014.

8.2 Aislamiento de microorganismos ambientales

Para el aislamiento de las bacterias se utilizaron medios oligotróficos: [Agar NAA (Aagot et al., 20001), R2A (Ultee et al. 2004), MacConkey y Led´s], suplementados o no con antibióticos [Trimetroprim 30 + carbenicilina 100, ciprofloxacino 4, ceftazidima 8, cefotaxima 4, imipenem 4 (μ g/ml)], se plaquearon 100 μ l de diluciones seriadas (1 a 10^{-4}) en triplicado para cada muestra, posteriormente se incubaron a 30º C por un máximo de 24 horas. Colonias aisladas fueron estriadas repetidamente en el mismo medio de aislamiento para la purificación de la cepa.

Los aislamientos fueron rutinariamente crecidos en medio LB suplementado con glicerol al 20% y congelados a -80º.

8.3 Determinación de perfiles de resistencia

Un total de 19 antibióticos pertenecientes a seis familias y cinco combinaciones de inhibidores de β -lactamasas, fueron utilizados para determinar los perfiles de resistencia de cada cepa.

Se determinaron los perfiles de resistencia de cada cepa picándolas en paralelo en cajas de agar suplementadas con antibióticos y mediante discos (BIOSEDNA). Siguiendo los puntos de corte recomendados por el (Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute 2016) los cuales se muestran en la TS1 y TS2.

De los aislamientos representativos de los géneros de interés se realizó la identificación fenotípica de genes de resistencia que codifican para β -lactamasas, carbapenemasas de clase A, metallo- β -lactamasas y AmpC, (CLSI, 2013) (**Figura 26**).

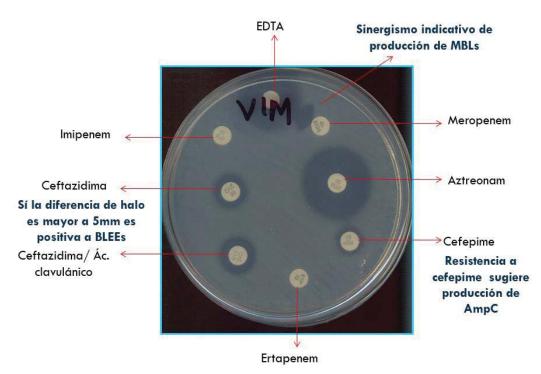


Figura 27. Ejemplo de la disposición de los sensidisco en la técnica de sinergismo de doble disco (SDD) realizado en una cepa control productora de MBL y ESBL

8.4 Amplificación mediante reacción en cadena de la polimerasa (PCR) de secuencias de 16S rDNA y su análisis filogenético

Todas las cepas fueron clasificadas a nivel de género mediante análisis filogenético de 16S rRNA gen (rrs) (Vinuesa et al. 2005), las secuencias fueron amplificadas con oligonucleótidos universales fD1/rD1 (Weisburg et al. 1991).

Solo la cadena forward fue secuenciada para cada amplicon con el primer fD1, utilizando la secuenciación-Sanger realizada comercialmente por Macrogen (South Korea). Las lecturas crudas fueron recortadas basadas en valores Phred utilizando phred (Ewing et al. 1998) y clasificados a nivel de género utilizando una tubería programada en Perl donde cada secuencia fue comparada vía blastn (Camacho et al., 20009) contra un caso local de alta calidad con una longitud completa de secuencias bacterianas rrs de cepas tipo descargadas en el servidor RDP-II (Cole et al. 2007), recuperando los 5 mejores hits. Las secuencias pre-alineadas se utilizaron para generar alineamientos de secuencia múltiples para ello se utilizó clustalw2 (Larkin et al. 2007). El resultado del alineamiento fue sometido a un análisis filogenético de maximun-likelihood con phyml3 (Guindon et al. 2010), bajo el mejor modelo de sustitución seleccionado por jModelTest2 (Darriba et al. 2012).

8.5 Identificación fenotípica de BLEEs y MBLs

Se realizó mediante sinergismo de doble disco (DDST) modificada (Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute 2013) , se utilizaron discos de imipenem ($10\mu g$), meropenem ($10\mu g$), utilizado EDTA (0.5M) como agente quelante, adicionalmente se agregaron disco de ertapenem ($10\mu g$), aztreonam ($30~\mu g$) para confirmar la no degradación del antibiótico, característica típica de la presencia de una metalo-betalactamasa además ceftazidima y ceftazidima con ácido clavulánico para comprobar la presencia de β -lactamasas de espectro extendido, así como un disco de cefoxitin ($10\mu g$), el cual indica la posible presencia de AmpC. Los discos se colocaron a una distancia de 2cm de centro a centro en medio de cultivo Mueller-Hilton. En la prueba, una deformación del halo entre el EDTA y alguno de los discos conteniendo impienem, meropenem, se considera como positiva para la producción de la metaloenzima. Si la diferencia es mayor o igual a 5mm entre ceftazidima y ceftazidima clavulánico es indicativo de una β -lactamasa. Finalmente, la resistencia de cefoxitin es indicativo de la posible presencia de AmpC.

8.6 Secuenciación de genomas completos de cepas selectas

Se seleccionaron cepas representativas de cada grupo de estudio para secuenciación de su genoma para lo cual se utilizó tecnología MiSeq (2x300bp) contratando el servicio provisto por la Universidad del Estado de Arizona (DNASU). La extracción de DNA total se realizó utilizando el kit comercial de QUIAGEN (DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit 250).

8.7 Metodología capítulo 1: Stenotrophomonas

La metodología empleada para el capítulo 1 de *Stenotrophomonas* se menciona en el artículo **Anexo 1**.

8.8 Metodología empleada en el capítulo 3: Acinetobacter

8.8.1 Amplificación de PCR y análisis filogenético de máxima verosimilitud de secuencias de multilocus

Para el análisis de secuencias multilocus (MLSA) de aislamientos ambientales de *Acinetobacter* se identificaron genes ortólogos del genoma núcleo de todas las secuencias de genomas completas del género *Acinetobacter* mediante el paquete GET_HOMOLOGUES (Contreras-Moreira and Vinuesa 2013). Seis loci fueron seleccionados para el diseño de oligonucleótidos utilizando el servidor Primers4clades (Contreras-Moreira et al. 2009). Los amplicones fueron purificados y secuenciados comercialmente por las dos cadenas en Macrogen (Corea del Sur). Alineamientos de genes individuales fueron concatenados y la matriz resultante fue sujeta a una selección de modelo con jModelTest2 (Darriba et al. 2012), para su análisis filogenético bajo máximum likelihood (ML) criterio con PhyML3 (Guindon et al. 2010).

8.8.2 Perfil de plásmidos

El contenido plasmídico fue analizado por el método descrito por Kieser (1984). Anexo 15.

8.8.3 Secuenciación, ensamble, anotación y análisis de genomas

Se secuenciaron 14 cepas pertenecientes al género *Acinetobacter*. Mediante tecnología Ilúmina MiSeq (2x300bp) contratando el servicio provisto por la Universidad del Estado de Arizona (DNASU). Diez de las cepas fueron además secuenciadas con la tecnología de tercera generación Oxford nanopore con el equipo MinION contratando el servicio del Instituto de Biotecnología-UNAM. Se generaron ensambles híbridos (10) con unicycler (Wick et al. 2017). Se utilizo el programa SPAdes (Bankevich et al. 2012) para los ensambles obtenidos con ilumina. La anotación de los genomas se realizó con prokka (Seemann 2014). La extracción de DNA total se realizó utilizando el kit comercial de QUIAGEN (DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit 250). El análisis filogenómico

del pagenoma del género Acinetobacter se realizó utilizando el paquete GET_HOMOLOGUES (Contretras-Moreira B & Vinuesa P. et al. 2013) y para estimar la matriz del pangenoma y construir el árbol de especies se utilizó el paquete GET_PHYLOMARKERS (Vinuesa P. et al., 2018). En primer lugar, se filtraron las secuencias para evitar alineaciones recombinantes. Se estimó un árbol de especies de máxima verosimilitud a partir del conjunto concatenado de alineamientos de alto nivel de ADN utilizando IQ-TREE (**Figura 21**).

9. Anexos

- Anexo 1. Artículo 1: Evolutionary Genetic Anlysis Uncovers Multiple Species with Distinct habitat preferences and Antibiotic Resistance Phenotypes in the *Stenotrophomonas maltophlia* complex
- Anexo 2. Material suplementario del artículo 1. Evolutionary genetic analysis uncovers multiple species with distinct habitat preferences and antibiotic resistance phenotypes in the *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* complex
- Anexo 3. Genome announcements: Complete Genome Sequencing of *Stenotrophomonas acidaminiphila* ZAC14D2_NAIMI4_2, a Multidrug-Resistant Strain Isolated from Sediments of a Polluted River in Mexico, Uncovers New Antibiotic Resistance Genes and a Novel Cass-II Lasso Peptide Biosynthesis Gene Cluster
- Anexo 4. Artículo GET_PHYLOMARKERS, a Software Package to Select Optimal Orthologous Clusters for Phylogenomics and Inferring Pan-Genome Phylogenies, Used for a Critical Geno-Taxonomic Revision of the Genus *Stenotrophomonas*
- Anexo 5. Material suplementario del artículo GET_PHYLOMARKERS, a Software Package to Select Optimal Orthologous Clusters for Phylogenomics and Inferring Pan-Genome Phylogenies, Used for a Critical Geno-Taxonomic Revision of the Genus *Stenotrophomonas*
 - Anexo 6. Lista de especies pertenecientes al género Stenotrophomonas
- Anexo 7. Métodos de tipificación epidemiológica molecular utilizados en *Stenotrophomonas*
 - Anexo 8. Genómica comparada del género Stenotrophomonas
- Anexo 9. Lista de especies de *Acinetobacter* que han sido reportadas y fueron identificadas en nuestro estudio.
- Anexo 10. Métodos de tipificación epidemiológica molecular que se han utilizado en *Acinetobacter*.
 - Anexo 11. Genómica comparado del género Acinetobacter
 - Anexo 12. Oligonucleótidos utilizados en este estudio
 - Anexo 13. Recetas de medios utilizados en este estudio
 - Anexo 14. Metodología de extracción de plásmidos (Kiesser et al., 1984)



Evolutionary Genetic Analysis Uncovers Multiple Species with Distinct Habitat Preferences and Antibiotic Resistance Phenotypes in the Stenotrophomonas maltophilia Complex

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OPEN ACCESS

Edited by:

Sergey M. Stolyar, University of Idaho, United States

Reviewed by:

Prabhu B. Patil, Institute of Microbial Technology (CSIR), India Peter Young, University of York, United Kingdom

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Specialty section:

This article was submitted to Evolutionary and Genomic Microbiology, a section of the journal Frontiers in Microbiology

Received: 03 December 2016 Accepted: 31 July 2017 Published: 17 August 2017

Citation:

Ochoa-Sánchez LE and Vinuesa P (2017) Evolutionary Genetic Analysis Uncovers Multiple Species with Distinct Habitat Preferences and Antibiotic Resistance Phenotypes in the Stenotrophomonas maltophilis Complex. Front. Microbiol. 8:1548. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2017.01548

The genus Stenotrophomonas (Gammaproteobacteria) has a broad environmental distribution. Stenotrophomonas maltophilia is its best known species because it is a globally emerging, multidrug-resistant (MDR), opportunistic pathogen. Members of this species are known to display high genetic, ecological and phenotypic diversity, forming the so-called S. maltophilia complex (Smc). Heterogeneous resistance and virulence phenotypes have been reported for environmental Smc isolates of diverse ecological origin. We hypothesized that this heterogeneity could be in part due to the potential lumping of several cryptic species in the Smc. Here we used state-of-theart phylogenetic and population genetics methods to test this hypothesis based on the multilocus dataset available for the genus at pubmlst.org. It was extended with sequences from complete and draft genome sequences to assemble a comprehensive set of reference sequences. This framework was used to analyze 108 environmental isolates obtained in this study from the sediment and water column of four rivers and streams in Central Mexico, affected by contrasting levels of anthropogenic pollution. The aim of the study was to identify species in this collection, defined as genetically cohesive sequence clusters, and to determine the extent of their genetic, ecological and phenotypic differentiation. The multispecies coalescent, coupled with Bayes factor analysis was used to delimit species borders, together with population genetic structure analyses, recombination and gene flow estimates between sequence clusters. These analyses consistently revealed that the Smc contains at least 5 significantly differentiated lineages: S. maltophilia and Smc1 to Smc4. Only S. maltophilia was found to be intrinsically MDR, all its members expressing metallo-β-lactamases (MBLs). The other Smc lineages were not MDR and did not express MBLs. We also obtained isolates related to S. acidaminiphila, S. humi and S. terrae. They were significantly more susceptible to antibiotics than S. maltophilia. We demonstrate that the sympatric lineages recovered display significantly differentiated habitat preferences, antibiotic

77

resistance profiles and β -lactamase expression phenotypes, as shown by diverse multivariate analyses and robust univariate statistical tests. We discuss our data in light of current models of bacterial speciation, which fit these data well, stressing the implications of species delimitation in ecological, evolutionary and clinical research.

Keywords: multilocus sequence analysis, species delimitation, multidrug resistance, multispecies coalescent, population genetic structure, recombination, metallo-beta-lactamase, multivariate statistics

INTRODUCTION

Bacterial species identification and delimitation are non-trivial tasks, which are critical in certain settings such as the clinic, bioterrorism and industry. More generally, the conclusions drawn from evolutionary and ecological analyses are strongly dependent on organismal classification, as species are the relevant units of diversity (Vinuesa et al., 2005b; Koeppel et al., 2008; Shapiro et al., 2016). Proper species delimitation is a requisite to discover the species-specific phenotypic attributes underlying their ecological niche differentiation (Cadillo-Quiroz et al., 2012; Shapiro et al., 2012; Cordero and Polz, 2014).

We hypothesized that problems with species delimitations have hindered progress in systematic, taxonomic and ecological research on the ubiquitous genus Stenotrophomonas (Gammaproteobacteria, Xanthomonadales, Xanthomonadaceae) (Palleroni and Bradbury, 1993), which currently comprises 12 validly described species1. This limitation particularly affects the S. maltophilia species complex (Smc) (Svensson-Stadler et al., 2011), which has long been recognized to have a broad ecological distribution, being associated with humans, animals, plants and diverse anthropogenic and natural environments (Berg et al., 1999; Ryan et al., 2009; Berg and Martinez, 2015). Although different genotyping methods, particularly AFLPs (Hauben et al., 1999), rep-PCR (Adamek et al., 2011) and multilocus sequence analysis/typing (MLSA/MLST) (Kaiser et al., 2009; Vasileuskaya-Schulz et al., 2011) have clearly revealed the existence of multiple genomic groups within the Smc, proper recognition of species borders within the complex has not yet been satisfactorily achieved. This has ultimately hindered the discovery of statistically significant associations between species and traits such as habitat preferences, antibiotic resistance phenotypes and pathogenicity potential (Adamek et al., 2011; Berg and Martinez, 2015; Deredjian et al., 2016). S. maltophilia is an important globally emerging and multidrug-resistant (MDR) opportunistic pathogen causing difficult-to-treat infections (Chang et al., 2015). High mortality rates are reported mainly in the immunocompromised, cancer and cystic fibrosis patients, as well as those with central venous catheters or long-lasting antibiotic therapy (Looney et al., 2009; Brooke, 2012). Therefore, the identification of significant genotype-phenotype associations is critical for the safe use of particular strains from the Smc with high potential for diverse environmental biotechnologies such as bioremediation, plant growth promotion and protection (Ryan et al., 2009; Berg and Martinez, 2015).

¹http://www.bacterio.net/stenotrophomonas.html

The main objectives of this study were: (i) to identify genetically cohesive and differentiated sequence clusters (genospecies) among a collection of environmental Stenotrophomonas isolates by using a combination of stateof-the-art phylogenetic and population genetic methods; (ii) to test whether such lineages exhibit distinct phenotypic and ecological attributes, as predicted by current models of bacterial speciation. We used the multilocus dataset for the genus available at pubmlst.org (Kaiser et al., 2001; Vasileuskaya-Schulz et al., 2011), and extended it with sequences extracted from complete (Crossman et al., 2008; Lira et al., 2012; Zhu et al., 2012; Davenport et al., 2014; Vinuesa and Ochoa-Sánchez, 2015) and draft (Patil et al., 2016) genome sequences to assemble a comprehensive MLSA dataset with representative strains of 11 out of 12 validly described Stenotrophomonas species. We used this reference dataset to study our collection of environmental Stenotrophomonas isolates (n = 108) recovered from the sediments and water column of several rivers with contrasting levels of contamination in the state of Morelos, Central Mexico.

For an initial exploration of this dataset, we used thorough maximum-likelihood tree searching. The evidence from this phylogenetic analysis was used to define diverse species border hypotheses, which were formally evaluated in a Bayesian framework under the multispecies coalescent (MSC) model (Rannala and Yang, 2003; Edwards et al., 2007; Degnan and Rosenberg, 2009) by subjecting them to Bayes factor (BF) analysis (Kass and Raftery, 1995). To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study that evaluates the utility of this Bayesian statistical framework for bacterial species delimitation, which is emerging as a successful and promising strategy for species delimitation in plants and animals (Fujita et al., 2012; Aydin et al., 2014; Grummer et al., 2014). The MSC model is independent of gene concatenation and acknowledges the very well known fact that gene trees have independent evolutionary histories embedded within a shared species tree (Degnan and Rosenberg, 2006; Rosenberg, 2013). The basic MSC model assumes that gene tree discordance is solely the result of stochastic coalescence of gene lineages within a species phylogeny. Populations, rather than alleles sampled from single individuals, are the units to infer phylogeny in the MSC framework, effectively connecting traditional phylogenetic inference with population genetics, providing estimates of topology, divergence times and population sizes (Rannala and Yang, 2003; Edwards et al., 2007; Heled and Drummond, 2010).

Current microbial speciation models predict that bacterial species-like lineages should be identifiable by significantly reduced gene flow between them, even when recombination levels are high within species. Such lineages should also display

differentiated ecological niches (Koeppel et al., 2008; Cadillo-Quiroz et al., 2012; Shapiro and Polz, 2014). This study shows the power of modern phylogenetic and population genetic methods to delimit species borders in bacteria and demonstrates that the Smc, as currently defined in pubmlst.org, genome databases and literature, contains multiple genospecies that are ecologically and phenotypically differentiated. We discuss our findings and approaches in the light of current models of bacterial speciation, highlighting the practical implications and ecological relevance of proper species delimitation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sampling Sites and Isolation of Environmental *Stenotrophomonas* Strains

Stenotrophomonas strains were recovered from the sediments and water columns at six sites of four rivers and streams in the State of Morelos, Central Mexico (Table 1 and Supplementary Figure S1). These sites experience different levels of anthropogenic pollution, broadly classified as low (L), intermediate (I) and high (H), based on triplicate counts of thermo-tolerant coliforms (TTCs) on mFC agar (Oxoid). Thermotolerant Escherichia coli (TTEc) counts were obtained on modified m-TEC agar (USEPA, 2002), using the one-step membrane filtration (0.45 µm) method (APHA, 2005). Water samples were taken in sterilized 1L recipients at 5-20 cm depth (2 per site). Six physico-chemical parameters of the water columns were measured using a HANNA multi-parametric HI9828 instrument operated in continuous measurement mode, for 1 min, along a 10 m transect (Supplementary Figure S2). Sediment samples (3 per site, along a 3 m linear transect) were taken from the same sites in sterile plastic cores dug 2-3 cm deep into the sediment. Samples were kept on ice until processing within 4-8 h (APHA, 2005). Sampling took place at the end of the dry season (April-May), between 2012 and 2014. Oligotrophic [NAA (Aagot et al., 2001) and R2A (Ultee et al., 2004) agar] and rich media [LAM (Jawad et al., 1994) and MacConkey], supplemented or not with antibiotics [trimethoprim 30 carbenicillin 100, ciprofloxacin 4, ceftazidime 8, cefotaxime 4, imipenem 4 (µg/ml)] were used to isolate bacteria from these samples by plating 100 μl of serial dilutions

(1 to $10e^{-4}$) in triplicate for each sample and incubation at 30° C for up to 48 h. Single colonies were repeatedly streaked on the same media for strain purification. Bacteria were routinely grown on LB and stored frozen in this medium supplemented with 20% (V/V) glycerol at -80° C.

Determination of Antibiotic Resistance and β-Lactamase Expression Profiles

A total of 15 antimicrobials from 6 families and two inhibitor/β-lactamase combinations were used to determine the resistance profiles of each strain by streaking them in parallel on agar plates supplemented with the antibiotics and concentrations indicated in Supplementary Table S1. Double disk synergism (DDS) assays were performed to determine the expression phenotypes of specific β-lactamase types [Ambler class A extended spectrum beta-lactamases (ESBLs), class B metallo-β-lactamases (MBLs) and class C cephalosporinases (AmpC)], as detailed in the legend to Supplementary Figure S11. The antibiotic breakpoint concentrations and growth inhibition zones were interpreted according to the 26th edition of the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI, 2016) values for Stenotrophomonas, Pseudomonas aeruginosa or Enterobacteriaceae, when not available for the first or second genus, respectively (cutoff values are shown in Supplementary Tables S1, S2).

PCR Amplification of 16S rDNA Sequences and Their Phylogenetic Analysis

All strains recovered were classified at the genus level by phylogenetic analysis of the 16S rRNA gene (*rrs*) sequences amplified with the universal fD1/rD1 primers (Weisburg et al., 1991), as previously described (Vinuesa et al., 2005a), and detailed in the supplementary material (Supplementary Protocol 1).

PCR Amplification and Maximum Likelihood Phylogenetic Analysis of Multilocus Sequence Data

For multilocus sequence analysis (MLSA) of environmental *Stenotrophomonas* isolates we used the primers and conditions reported at http://pubmlst.org/smaltophilia/, except for

TABLE 1 Sampling sites for this study in Morelos, Mexico and pollution level based on counts of thermotolerant fecal coliforms (TTFCs) and thermotolerant *E. coli* (TTEc) colony forming units (cfu/100 ml) measured in the water column.

| River | Site name | | Coordinates ^a | TTFCs ^b | TTEcc | Pol.level ^d |
|-------------------|---------------------------|------|-----------------------------|--------------------|-------|------------------------|
| Apat l aco | Temixco | TEX | 18°51′14.4′′N 99°13′20.4′′W | 5.66e5 | 3.6e5 | Н |
| Apat l aco | Zacatepec | ZAC | 18°38′23.4″N 99°11′44.5″W | 5.34e5 | 3.2e5 | Н |
| Sauces | Los Sauces (river) | SAU | 18°41′50.0″N 99°07′45.7″W | 240 | 97 | L |
| Sauces | Los Sauces (flooded soil) | SAUr | 18°41′50.0″N 99°07′45.7″W | 966 | 166 | L |
| Estacas | Las Estacas | EST | 18°43′57.5″N 99°06′48.3″W | 83 | 17 | L |
| Yautepec | Bonifiacio García | YAU | 18°43′24.0′′N 99°06′53.3′′W | 1.96e3 | 833 | 1 |

^aSee supplementary Figure S1 for maps and pictures of the sampling sites. ^bThermo-tolerant fecal coliform counts were performed on mFC agar using the membrane-filtration method. ^cThermo-tolerant E. coli counts were performed on mTEC agar using the membrane-filtration method. ^dPollution level, coded as high (H > 1000), intermediate (200 < I < 1000) and low (L < 200), based on the colony forming units (cfu) of thermo-tolerant E. coli.

mutM_steno_6F (5'-ytdcccgaagtmgaaacyac-3') and mutM_steno_684R (5'-gcagytcctgytcgaartarcc-3') primers, which were designed de novo using the Primers4Clades server (Contreras-Moreira et al., 2009) fed with mutM orthologues identified using the GET_HOMOLOGUES package (Contreras-Moreira and Vinuesa, 2013) from Stenotrophomonas genome sequences (data not shown). PCR amplicons were purified and commercially sequenced at both strands by Macrogen, (South Korea). Raw reads were assembled with the phredphrap script (de la Bastide and McCombie, 2007), codon-based multiple sequence alignments (MSA) generated with an in-house Perl script, and MSA borders stripped to match the reference pubmlst.org profiles. Individual gene alignments were concatenated and the resulting matrix subjected to model selection with jModelTest2 (Darriba et al., 2012) for phylogenetic analysis under the maximum likelihood criterion in PhyML3 (Guindon et al., 2010). Tree searches were initiated from 1000 random seed trees and a BioNj phylogeny, under the BEST moves option, as previously described (Vinuesa et al., 2008).

Identification of the 7 MLSA Loci in Genome Sequences Retrieved from GenBank

We selected 24 complete (Crossman et al., 2008; Lira et al., 2012; Zhu et al., 2012; Davenport et al., 2014; Vinuesa and Ochoa-Sánchez, 2015) and draft (Patil et al., 2016) genome sequences available in GenBank to expand our dataset with additional key reference strains. The orthologs of the seven MLSA loci were identified from single-copy homologous gene clusters computed with the GET_HOMOLOGUES package (Contreras-Moreira and Vinuesa, 2013). We found that the *gap* gene in the draft genome sequence of strain *S. ginsengisoli* DSMC24757^T (Acc. No. LDJM00000000) (Patil et al., 2016) contains a thymidine insertion at position 602 that causes a frame-shift mutation and a premature end of the gene. Consequently, the last 72 sites of this sequence were re-coded as '?' (missing characters).

Sequence Data Availability

The sequences generated in this study for multilocus sequence analysis were deposited in GenBank under accession numbers KX895367-KX896038.

Bayesian Species Delimitation Using the Multispecies Coalescent and Bayes Factors

Bayesian species delimitation from multilocus data under the MSC model was performed using the recent *BEAST2 module (version 0.7.2) for BEAST 2 (Heled and Drummond, 2010; Bouckaert et al., 2014), to evaluate a set of explicit hypotheses of species-boundaries. *BEAST2 was run using the best fitting partitioning scheme (see Supplementary Protocol 2) and the TrN+G model with empirical frequencies, without rate estimation. Trees were unlinked across partitions, setting the ploidy level to 1 for each gene tree and assuming a constant IO population model. A non-correlated relaxed log-normal clock (Drummond et al., 2006) was assumed for each partition, fixing

the clock rate of the first partition and estimating the remaining ones. A non-calibrated Yule prior was set on the species tree. The default 1/x population mean size prior was changed for a proper inverse gamma prior (Baele et al., 2013), with shape parameter alpha = 2 and scale parameter beta = 2 and an initial value of 0.05. The upper and lower bounds were set to 0.001 and 1000.0, respectively. Path sampling was used to estimate the marginal likelihoods of each species delimitation model in *BEAST2 runs for BF calculations (Lartillot and Philippe, 2006; Baele et al., 2012; Grummer et al., 2014), with the MODEL_SELECTION 1.3.1 package. Each *BEAST2 chain was run for 10⁸ generations, sampling the posterior every 20000th, with 10 replicate runs and the alpha value set to 0.3, applying 50% burnin. A final triplicate *BEAST2 analysis was set up to get the final estimate of the multispecies phylogeny under the best delimitation model with the same parameters, priors, chain length and sampling frequency described above. Convergence and mixing of replicate runs was checked in tracer², as well as the effective sample size values for each parameter. The species tree corresponding to the best species-delimitation hypothesis was visualized with densitree (Bouckaert, 2010), on combined post-burnin (50%) species tree files generated with logcombiner. A summary tree was generated from the latter with treeannotator and visualized with FigTree $v1.4.2^3$.

DNA Polymorphism, Population Structure and Recombination Analyses

Descriptive statistics for DNA polymorphisms, population differentiation, gene flow, diverse neutrality and population growth tests, as well as coalescent simulations, were computed with DNAsp v.5.10.01 (Rozas et al., 2003), as previously described (Vinuesa et al., 2005b). Bayesian analysis of population structure based on multilocus sequence data was performed in STRUCTURE v2.3.4 under the admixture and correlated gene frequencies models (Pritchard et al., 2000; Falush et al., 2003, 2007). Twenty runs were launched for each K value between 2 and 10, with 10^5 steps sampled after a burnin of 2×10^5 chain iterations. The best *K* value was defined by the Evanno (Evanno et al., 2005) and Pritchard (Pritchard et al., 2000) methods, as implemented in CLUMPAK (Kopelman et al., 2015). Estimation of recombination rates of selected lineages was performed with ClonalFrameML v1.0.9 (Didelot and Wilson, 2015), using ML trees and Ti/Tv ratios estimated under the HKY85+G model with PhyML3 (Guindon et al., 2010).

Statistical Analyses

All statistical and graphical analyses were performed with base R (R Development Core Team, 2016) and add-on packages. Basic data manipulation, transformation and graphical displays were achieved with functions of the tidyverse metapackage⁴. Tests for normality, homoscedasticity, outliers and skew were performed

²http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/tracer/

³http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/

⁴https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=tidyverse

with the car⁵ and moments⁶ packages. Robust ANOVA and associated *post hoc* analyses (Wilcox, 2016) were performed with the WRS2 package⁷. Empirical distributions of test statistics were generated by bootstrapping with the boot package⁸. Multivariate association plots for categorical data were performed with the vcd package⁹. Multiple correspondence analysis (MCA) was performed with the FactoMineR¹⁰ and factoextra packages¹¹.

RESULTS

Evaluation of Different Isolation Media for the Recovery of Stenotrophomonas from Aquatic Ecosystems with Contrasting Degrees of Fecal Contamination

We sampled 6 sites located in four rivers/streams of Morelos (Supplementary Figure S1) that were ranked into three categories based on their pollution level (low, intermediate, high), based on counts of thermotolerant fecal coliforms and E. coli (Table 1). Additional physicochemical parameters of each sampling site are presented in Supplementary Figure S2. Classification of the isolates at the genus level was based on the phylogenetic analysis of 16S rRNA gene sequences (n = 697), as shown in Supplementary Figure S3. Stenotrophomonas was the second most abundant genus (n = 154, 22.1%) recovered in our collection, after Pseudomonas (n = 239, 34.3%), as shown in Supplementary Figure S4. The inset in Supplementary Figure S4 shows a Trellis barplot summarizing the relative efficiency of the different microbiological media tested for the recovery of Stenotrophomonas. The analysis reveals that environmental Stenotrophomonas strains can be efficiently recovered on the oligotrophic NAA medium supplemented with imipenem (8 μg/ml; >90% recovery efficiency). The rich McConkey medium amended with imipenem is also useful (4 μ g/ml; \sim 60%), selecting non-fermenting (whitish) colonies.

Phylogenetic Structure of the Genus Stenotrophomonas and the Definition of Species Border Hypotheses

We used intense maximum likelihood (ML) tree searching (see Materials and Methods) to obtain a global hypothesis of the phylogenetic structure of the genus based on 194 non-redundant multilocus STs (**Figure 1**). This dataset contains sequences retrieved from pubmlst.org (seven loci for 103 STs representative of all the "classic" genogroups and clusters defined in previous works (Kaiser et al., 2009; Vasileuskaya-Schulz et al., 2011), plus 24 selected reference strains from different species for which

the genome sequences were retrieved from GenBank and the 7 loci extracted, as explained in methods. This comprehensive set of reference strains comprises 11 out of 12 validly describes species of the genus as of April 2017. Recently S. tumulicola (Handa et al., 2016) was added to the list12 (last access April 10th, 2017), which is the only species missing from our analysis, as it lacks a genome sequence or MLSA data in pubmlst.org. To this set we added the sequences generated in this study for 108 environmental isolates from Mexican rivers, comprising 63 haplotypes (distinct multilocus sequence types). Figure 1A presents the best hypothesis found among 1001 independent tree searches (the lnL profile of the tree search is shown in Supplementary Figure S5A), displaying the Smc clade in collapsed form. The ML tree was rooted using four Xanthomonas species as the outgroup, chosen based on the evidence of a comprehensive ML phylogeny of nearly full-length 16S rRNA gene sequences for all type strains currently described in the order Xanthomonadales (Supplementary Figure S6). S. panacihumi (Yi et al., 2010) represents the most basal lineage of the genus, which is consistent with its position on the 16S rRNA gene phylogeny (Supplementary Figure S6). However, this species was described based on the rrs sequence analysis of a single isolate and currently has a non-validated taxonomic status. Two large clades follow, labeled I and II on Figure 1A. All species grouped in clade I are of diverse environmental origin, lacking strains reported as opportunistic pathogens. Three of our environmental isolates tightly cluster with the type strain of S. acidaminiphila (Assih et al., 2002), including strain ZAC14D2_NAIMI4_2, for which we have recently reported its complete genome sequence (Vinuesa and Ochoa-Sánchez, 2015). The type strain of this species (AMX19^T, LMG22073^T) was isolated from the sludge of a lab-scale anaerobic chemical waste water reactor in Iztapalapa, Mexico City, 1999 (Assih et al., 2002). A single isolate of our collection is phylogenetically related to S. humi, while 7 others form a perfectly supported clade with the type strain of S. terrae (Heylen et al., 2007). In conclusion, all environmental isolates grouped in clade I were conservatively classified as indicated by the labeled boxes on Figure 1A, based on the very strong support of the monophyletic clusters formed with the corresponding type

Clade IIa groups strains of *S. chelatiphaga* and *S. rhizophila* and clade IIb groups strains of the *S. maltophilia* complex (**Figure 1A**). Both of them hold human opportunistic pathogens and environmental isolates, and suffer from taxonomic problems. The taxonomic inconsistency of classifying strains of genogroups #8 and #10 as *S. maltophilia* was previously recognized (Vasileuskaya-Schulz et al., 2011). They cluster within the *S. chelatiphaga-S. rhizophila* clade, making *S. maltophilia* polyphyletic. *S. maltophilia* strains of genogroup #8 were already recognized to belong to *S. rhizophila*, but the taxonomic status of its sister clade, genogroup #10, holding strains labeled as *S. maltophilia*, was not clarified (Vasileuskaya-Schulz et al., 2011).

Figure 1B shows the same phylogeny presented in **Figure 1A**, but collapsing clades I and IIa, and displaying the Smc strains grouped in cluster IIb. All terminal clades containing only

strains.

⁵https://cran.r-project.org/package=car

 $^{^6} https://cran.r-project.org/package=moments\\$

 $^{^7} https://cran.r-project.org/package{=}WRS2$

 $^{^8} https://cran.r-project.org/package=boot \\$

⁹https://cran.r-project.org/package=vcd ¹⁰https://cran.r-project.org/package=FactoMineR

¹¹https://cran.r-project.org/package=factoextra

¹² www.bacterio.net/stenotrophomonas.html

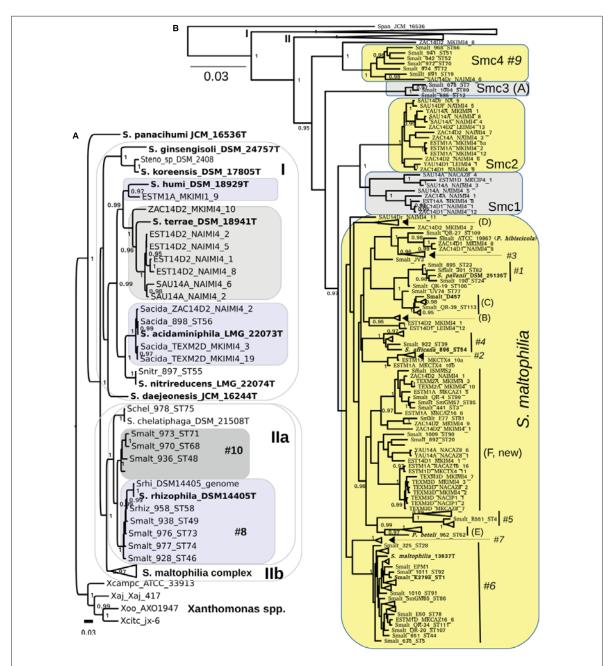


FIGURE 1 | Maximum likelihood multilocus phylogeny of the genus Stenotrophomonas and species delimitation hypotheses. The tree shown corresponds to the best one found out of 1001 searches under the GTR + G model and BEST moves, using the concatenated alignment (7-loci) for 194 non-redundant STs, containing all validly described species of the genus except for S. tumulicola, additional key reference strains and 63 haplotypes from the 108 Mexican environmental isolates analyzed in this study. (A) The S. maltophilla complex (Smc) clade is collapsed in this tree. (B) The Smc clade is displayed, collapsing the clades visible in (B). Clades are labeled using the A-E codes of Kaiser et al. (2009) and #1-#10 of Hauben et al. (1999) for easy cross-reference. The shaded areas indicate species assignation hypotheses specifically evaluated in this study by the multispecies coalescent using Bayes factors and by population genetics analyses (Tables 2, 3). The combined evidence of both approaches reveals that the Smc complex should be split into S. maltophilla and four new genospecies: Smc1, Smc2, Smc3, and Smc4 (B). We also show (A) that genotype #10 represents a non-described species that should not be merged with S. rhizophila clade #6 (Table 2). Type and other key reference strains are highlighted in bold-face. The bar indicates the number of expected substitutions per site under the GTR + G model.

reference sequences were also collapsed to avoid excessive cluttering. Supplementary Figure S5B displays the same tree but without collapsing those clusters. The Smc clade was conservatively split into 5 potential species (labeled boxes in Figure 1B) based on the deep and strongly supported branches subtending MLSA phylogroups Smc1-Smc4, and taking into account the location of the well characterized S. maltophilia model strains K279a (Crossman et al., 2008), D457 (Lira et al., 2012) and the type strain of the species ATCC 13637^T (Davenport et al., 2014). The latter three are spread across the clade labeled as S. maltophilia (Figure 1B). Each of the phylogroups Smc1 to Smc4 currently holds ecologically coherent groups of strains: Smc1 and Smc2 contain exclusively Mexican river isolates recovered in this study, Smc3 groups cystic fibrosis isolates and Smc4 predominately rhizosphere isolates from diverse plants and parts of the world. In contrast, the large S. maltophilia clade holds heterogeneous groups of isolates of clinical and environmental origin, including the previously defined MLSA phylogroups A to E (Kaiser et al., 2001; Vasileuskaya-Schulz et al., 2011) and AFLP genogroups #1 to #10 (Hauben et al., 1999). We conservatively define a new MLSA phylogroup F, comprising isolates of clinical and environmental origin from different continents, but dominated by river isolates reported herein (Figure 1B). We note that S. pavanii DSM 25135^T, an endophytic N2-fixing bacterium isolated from sugarcane in Brazil (Ramos et al., 2010), is clearly nested within genogroup #1, closely related to the reference strain S. maltophilia D457 (Figure 1B). This represents an additional taxonomic inconsistency for the S. maltophilia clade not previously reported. Here we suggest that *S. pavanii* is a late heteronym of *S. maltophilia*. *S. africana*, nested within genogroup #4, had already been described as a later heterotypic synonym of *S. maltophilia* (Coenye et al., 2004; Kaiser et al., 2009), the same as *Pseudomonas beteli* 962^T, related to MLSA genogroup E, and *P. hibiscicola* ATCC19867, related to genogroup #3 (Hauben et al., 1999; Vasileuskaya-Schulz et al., 2011). The latter two species were already recognized in 1990 to be misclassified based on the analysis of an extensive set of phenotypic features, being synonyms of *S. maltophilia* (Van Den Mooter and Swings, 1990). The taxonomic status of *S. tumulicola* (Handa et al., 2016) could not be revised in the present work because it lacks multilocus sequence data.

Bayesian Species Delimitation Based on the Multispecies Coalescent (MSC) Model and Bayes Factor (BF) Analysis of Marginal Likelihoods

We used a recent software implementation of the MSC model (Heled and Drummond, 2010; Bouckaert et al., 2014) to test the explicit species delimitation hypotheses highlighted in **Figures 1A,B** by means of BF analysis of marginal likelihoods (Grummer et al., 2014) in a formal Bayesian statistical framework. The best partitioning scheme (see Supplementary Protocol 2 and Figure S7) was used for all *BEAST2 runs. Of particular interest to this work was the evaluation of the following five species delimitation hypotheses within the Smc: split1 (species assignations as defined by the shaded areas on **Figures 1A,B**), lump_S maltophilia+Smc1,

TABLE 2 Bayes factor (BF) analysis for five species delimitation hypotheses within the *S. maltophilia* complex, plus genogroups #8 and #10, based on marginal likelihoods computed for each hypothesis by path sampling (see Materials and Methods).

| Species model ^a | marginal InL estimate | Model rank | In-BF ^b (vs. best) | In-BF ^c (vs. previous) | |
|----------------------------|-----------------------|------------|-------------------------------|-----------------------------------|--|
| split1 | -31347.16515 | 1 (best) | NA | NA | |
| lump_Smal+Smc1 | -31384.34206 | 2 | 4.308835** | 4.308835** (2 vs. 1) | |
| lump_Smal +Smc12 | -31498.71633 | 3 | 5.714071*** | 5.432623*** (3 vs. 2) | |
| lump_Smal +Smc123 | -31521.18269 | 4 | 5.852303*** | 3.805166** (4 vs. 3) | |
| lump_Smal +Smc1234 | -31593.24923 | 5 | 6.19882*** | 4.970737** (5 vs. 4) | |

^aThe best (split1) model assumes that genogroup #10 is a sister clade of S. rhizophila (**Figure 1A**) and splits the Smc into S. maltophilia (Smal) and four additional species clades (Smc1-Smc4), according to **Figure 1B**. The following models consecutively lump the S. maltophilia clade with the Smc1-Smc4 clades, with lump_S. maltophilia + Smc1234 representing the whole S. maltophilia complex as a single species (**Figures 1A,B**). The marginal InL for the Lump_clades_#8+#10 model is -31465.00904, resulting in a In-BF = 5.462508^{***} when compared against the split1 (best) model. ^bThe In-Bayes factors are computed based on the marginal likelihood estimates In-BF = $\log(2(M_0-M_1))$, where M_0 is the best model (model 1), which is compared against each of the following ones. *indicates positive support [In(BF) is n the range of 1.1-3]; **indicates strong support [In(BF) is n the range of 3-5]; *** indicates overwhelming support [In(BF) > 5]. ^cThe In-Bayes factors are computed as described above, but involve M_0 as the model preceding model M_1 from the ranked model list. NA, not applicable.

TABLE 3 McDonald–Kreitman (MK) neutrality tests, genetic differentiation and gene flow estimates between environmental isolates of the Smc1, Smc2 and S. maltophilia (Small) lineages of the S. maltophilia complex recovered from Mexican rivers based on the concatenated dataset (3591 sites).

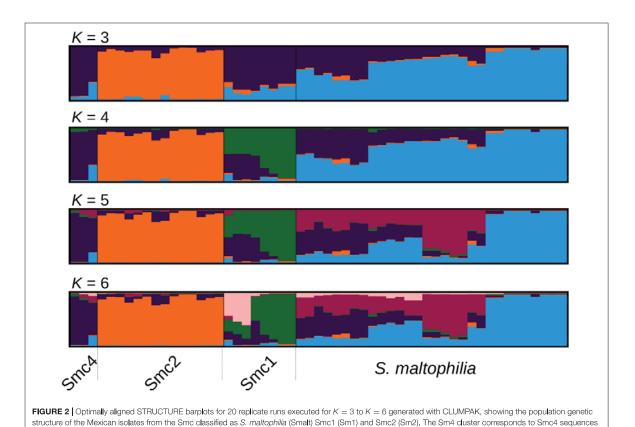
| Lineages | No. Fixed diffs. | Dxy | aK* _{ST} | F _{ST} | Nm | NI | G | ^b p-value |
|-----------|------------------|---------|-------------------|-----------------|------|-------|-------|----------------------|
| Smc1-Smc2 | 45 | 0.04616 | 0.13791*** | 0.57819 | 0.36 | 0.328 | 6.709 | 0.00959** |
| Smc1-Smal | 9 | 0.04542 | 0.06654*** | 0.43022 | 0.66 | 0.247 | 3.133 | 0.07672 |
| Smc2-Smal | 28 | 0.04924 | 0.09508*** | 0.59384 | 0.34 | 0.312 | 6.020 | 0.02515* |

Dxy is the interpopulation genetic distance. K^*_{ST} is Hudson's index of population genetic differentiation. F_{ST} is the fixation index. Nm represents the number of migrants per generation. NI is the neutrality index and G is the likelihood ratio or G-test of independence. ^aThe significance of the estimated statistic was computed using the permutation test with 10000 iterations. ^bp-values for the G-test. *p-value < 0.05; **p-value < 0.01; ***p-value < 0.001.

lump_S. maltophilia+Smc12, lump_S. maltophilia+Smc123, lump_S. maltophilia+Smc1234, which successively lump the S. maltophilia sequence cluster with the proposed Smc1-Smc4 genospecies (Table 2 and Figure 1B). Analysis of the logfiles for the path sampling runs for each model and replicate had effective sample size (ESS) values > 150 for all parameters, most of them with ESSs > 500. As shown in **Table 2**, the split1 hypothesis was the favored one as it attained the highest marginal likelihood. The BF analysis provides overwhelming evidence (Table 2) that the Smc, as actually defined in pubmlst.org, lumps multiple cryptic species, strongly supporting the species delimitation hypothesis presented in Figure 2, which conservatively splits the complex into the five species: S. maltophilia and the four new lineages Smc1, Smc2, Smc3, and Smc4. Smc1 and Smc2 contain only Mexican representatives of environmental Stenotrophomonas sampled in this study. The split1 vs. lump_cluster#8+cluster#10 (Figure 1A) model was also evaluated, providing overwhelming evidence in favor of separating the two genogroups #8 and #10 as distinct species (ln-BF > 5, Table 2). Supplementary Figures S8, S9 show the consensus and DensiTree (see Materials and Methods) species tree representations, respectively, of the merged (3 replicate runs), post-burnin (50%) samples, for the best hypothesis.

Population Genetic Structure Analysis of Mexican Environmental *S. maltophilia* Complex Isolates

In order to challenge the results of the MSC-based species delimitations presented in the previous section, we performed a Bayesian population clustering analysis on all Mexican isolates grouped within the Smc clade (Figure 1B) using STRUCTURE (see Materials and Methods). We included also the Smc4 lineage, identified among pubmlst.org sequences, as an outgroup control. Figure 2 shows the optimally aligned STRUCTURE barplots for the 20 replicate runs made for the indicated K values, depicting the ancestry proportions of each individual. Evanno's delta-K method estimated an optimal number of 3 clusters, while Pritchard's method suggested an optimal K=6. This analysis uncovered a strong population subdivision of the Mexican Smc isolates, which is consistent with the MSC-based species delimitation (Figure 1B). Given the independent evidence from the MSC analysis, we favor a conservative K = 4, as it consistently resolves the same 4 clusters classified as distinct species by the phylogenetic approach (S. maltophilia, Smc1, Smc2, and Smc4). Detailed inspection of the barplots reveals that already at K=4an important substructure exists within the S. maltophilia and



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from pubmlst.org, included in the analysis as an outgroup to the Mexican Smc strains (see Figure 1B).

Smc1 lineages. At K=6 the Mexican *S. maltophilia* population gets subdivided into three clusters, while Smc1 is split into two subgroups. Clear evidences of admixture exist in both clades, suggesting that gene flow and recombination might be at play in these clusters.

McDonald-Kreitman (MK) Neutrality Test, Genetic Differentiation and Gene Flow Estimates between Pairs of Environmental Lineages of the S. maltophilia Complex

To determine the statistical support of the major clusters revealed by STRUCTURE we computed the K^*_{ST} index of population genetic differentiation (Hudson et al., 1992) between them. The results presented in Table 3 indicate that the Smc1, Smc2 and S. maltophilia lineages are strongly differentiated (p < 0.001) based on the K^*_{ST} index, with multiple fixed differences between populations (range 9 - 45) and mean population divergences (Dxy) > 4.5%. The high F_{ST} fixation indices (range 0.43 – 0.59) further denote very strong population differentiation. This is consistent with the low numbers of effective migrants per generation estimated (Nm range 0.34 - 0.66), indicating limited genetic flux between these lineages. We applied the MK test (McDonald and Kreitman, 1991) and computed the "neutrality index" (NI) (Rand and Kann, 1996) to test if the observed polymorphisms between pairs of lineages have evolved by the accumulation of neutral mutations by random drift, the fixation of adaptive mutations by selection, or a mixture of the two. As shown in **Table 3**, the G and NI indices for pairwise species comparisons indicate that fixed differences between species are due to non-synonymous differences more often than expected, suggesting that positive selection may be driving divergence of Smc1 and S. maltophilia from Smc2. This signal is not significant (p = 0.077) for the Smc1 and *S. maltophilia* comparison.

Comparative Analysis of DNA Polymorphisms and Recombination Rates across the *S. maltophilia* Complex (Smc) and *S. terrae* Lineages

Table 4 presents basic descriptive statistics of DNA polymorphisms, neutrality and population growth tests computed for the Mexican populations/genospecies with \geq 10 isolates (Smc1, Smc2, S. maltophilia and S. terrae. Based on their average nucleotide diversity per site (π) values, the

lineages sort in the following decreasing order of diversity: $S.\ maltophilia > Smc1 > S.\ terrae > Smc2$. The high π values, high numbers of haplotypes (h) and the high haplotype diversity values (Hd) consistently reveal that species in the genus comprise notoriously diverse gene pools. Tajima's D values are all negative, but non-significant, suggesting that the loci are either under purifying selection or that populations are undergoing expansions. We used the R_2 population growth test statistic (Ramos-Onsins and Rozas, 2002) to test the null hypothesis of constant population size. Since all p-values were > 0.1, there is no evidence of population expansion.

Table 5 shows the estimates for *R/theta*, the ratio between the mean number of recombination to mutation events. The ratios are >1 (except for *S. terrae*) and for Smc2 and *S. maltophilia* the recombination events are estimated to be almost twice and nearly three times the number of mutation events, respectively. This indicates that homologous recombination events introduce significantly more polymorphisms into the *Stenotrophomonas* genomes than point mutations. The inverse mean DNA import length estimates (1/*delta*) suggest that on average rather long sequence stretches are affected by recombination (range 375–1472 nt), with a considerable mean sequence divergence (range 0.009–0.065).

High Diversity of Novel STs among the Mexican Smc Isolates

The allele numbers and STs were determined for each of the 77 isolates in the Smc (Smc1 = 11, Smc2 = 15 and S. maltophilia = 51) recovered from Mexican rivers, by comparing them with the corresponding 177 STs and associated alleles downloaded from pubmlst.org (as of November 18th, 2016) using an in house Perl script. A high diversity of new alleles was discovered, as summarized in Supplementary Table S3.

TABLE 5 | Recombination estimates for environmental isolates of the Smc1, Smc2, *S. maltophilia* (Smal) and *S. terrae* (Sterr) lineages recovered from Mexican rivers based on the concatenated dataset (3591 sites).

| Lineages | R/theta | 1/delta | nu | |
|----------|-------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|--|
| Smc1 | 1.10774 (0.07076) | 0.0006789 (3.213e-08) | 0.0152529 (7.570e-07) | |
| Smc2 | 1.89989 (0.12028) | 0.0009080 (3.121e-08) | 0.00864951 (3.081e-7) | |
| Smal | 2.95326 (0.10044) | 0.0010379 (1.302e-08) | 0.0129774 (1.648e-7) | |
| Sterr | 0.87233 (0.05113) | 0.0021663 (3.443e-07) | 0.0650391 (1.2279e-5) | |

The figures indicate the posterior mean and their variances are shown in parentheses.

TABLE 4 | Descriptive statistics of DNA polymorphisms, neutrality and population growth tests for environmental isolates of the Smc1, Smc2, S. maltophilia (Smal) and S. terrae (Sterr) lineages recovered from Mexican rivers based on the concatenated dataset (3591 sites).

| Species | No. Seqs | s | Eta | π | h/Hd | Theta /site | Tajima's D | R ₂ | p-value |
|---------|----------|-----|-----|---------|----------|-------------|---------------|----------------|---------|
| Smc1 | 11 | 258 | 280 | 0.02502 | 9/0,945 | 0.02662 | -0.29156 (NS) | 0.1390 | 0.45 |
| Smc2 | 15 | 173 | 185 | 0.01393 | 14/0.990 | 0.01584 | -0.45427 (NS) | 0.1199 | 0.19 |
| Smal | 51 | 500 | 560 | 0.02652 | 33/0.929 | 0.03470 | -0.85761 (NS) | 0.0903 | 0.17 |
| Sterr | 10 | 318 | 328 | 0.02388 | 7/0.067 | 0.04455 | -1.30647 (NS) | 0.1482 | 0.49 |

The p-values for the R_2 statistic were estimated using 10000 coalescent simulations assuming an intermediate level of recombination.

August 2017 | Volume 8 | Article 1548

Only the ST139, displayed by the Mexican *S. maltophilia* isolate ESTM1D_MKCAZ16_6, was previously reported in pubmlst.org, highlighting the novelty of the genotypes recovered in this study. A single entry is currently found in pubmlst.org for ST139, which corresponds to the Spanish isolate S3149-CT11 (id 220), recovered in 2007 from a surgical wound of a patient treated in an hospital from Barcelona. The Mexican Smc strains add 56 new STs (numbers 178 – 233) to those reported in the pubmlst.org database, with ST219 being the most prevalent one (see Supplementary Tables S3, S4 and Figure S10), shared by 9 isolates recovered from the sediments of the highly contaminated TEX site (**Table 1**), both on MK and NAA media.

Multivariate Association Mapping of Species, Antimicrobial Resistance Phenotypes and Habitat Preferences by Multiple Correspondence Analysis (MCA)

We used MCA to visualize the associations between the antibiotic resistance profiles, β-lactamase production phenotypes (Supplementary Figure S11), habitat preferences and species assignations (Figures 1A,B) made for the Mexican S. maltophilia, Smc1, Smc2 and S. terrae isolates (all with > 10 isolates/species). Figure 3 depicts the MCA factor-individual biplot resulting from the analysis of 17 active variables and 4 supplementary categorical variables, listed in the figure caption. The clouds of individuals for each species were hidden (visible in Supplementary Figure S12) to avoid over-plotting, but the 95% confidence intervals (CIs) for species are shown as color-coded ellipses. The first two dimensions explain 45.3% of the variance, the first dimension accounting for >3.8 times the variability explained by the second and following ones, as shown in the screeplot presented in Supplementary Figure S13A. The variable plot depicted in Supplementary Figure S13B reveals that the active variable species is the most correlated one with the first two dimensions, indicating that their resistance profiles and β -lactamase expression phenotypes are distinct. The variables GM, KA, MER, FEP, TET, ATM (abbreviations defined in the legend to Figure 3), β -lactamase expression and the MDR condition are strongly correlated with the first component, while IMP and SM are the variables most strongly associated with the second dimension (Supplementary Figure S13B). Figure 3 shows that the S. maltophilia (malt) strains form a distinct and independent cloud that is characterized by a very strong association with a resistance status to the following antibiotics: CAZ, CAZ.CLA, GM, FEP, GM, KA, and SM. It is also strongly associated with the MDR condition and metallo-β-lactamase production. The latter are the most-strongly contributing variables for the delimitation of this group, as depicted in the variable-categories MCA map presented in Supplementary Figure S14. S. maltophilia shows a preference for the sediments of contaminated sites. The resistance phenotypes and habitat preferences of the Smc1 and Smc2 lineages largely overlap, those of S. terrae being more differentiated, but partially overlapping with the 95% CI ellipse for Smc2. The Smc1 and Smc2 lineages are strongly associated with non-MDR, aminoglycoside, P.T. and Tm.Cb sensitivity, showing a preference for the water

column of clean or moderately contaminated sites (**Figure 3** and Supplementary Figure S13). The *S. terrae* isolates are distinctly and strongly associated with carbapenem and ATM sensitivity (**Figure 3** and Supplementary Figure S14). The statistical significance of these antibiotic resistance and habitat preference patterns will be formally tested in the following sections.

Only *S. maltophilia* Is Truly Multidrug-Resistant (MDR) and Isolates from Polluted Sites Express Resistance to More Antibiotic Families

We performed one-way ANOVA analyses to evaluate differences (i) in the mean number of resistances to individual antibiotics (NumR), (ii) in the mean number of distinct drug families (NumFam) across species, and (iii) to determine whether S. maltophilia isolates recovered from high and low pollution sites have the same NumR and NumFam. Figures 4A,B,E,F display violin and boxplots for the raw count data, which revealed skewed, non-normal distributions, with a few outliers. Key assumptions (homoscedasticity and normality) made by standard one-way ANOVA were formally tested (Supplementary Tables S5, S6), which confirmed multiple cases of highly significant departures from normality. Consequently, we performed robust one-way ANOVA (Wilcox, 2016) using trimmed means (tr = 0.2) and bootstrap (nboot = 2000) to simulate the distribution of the trimmed sample means and compute the appropriate critical values for the confidence intervals (95% CIs). Figures 4C,D depict mean plots with 95% CIs for the NumR and NumFam, respectively, across the four species with >10 isolates. These clearly show that S. maltophilia strains express significantly higher $mean_{(tr\ =\ 0.2)}$ NumR (12.63) and NumFam (4.66) than the other three species, only S. maltophilia being truly MDR. Highly significant results for both the NumR $[F_t = 176.3447, p = 0.0 \text{ Variance explained } (\sigma^2) = 0.821;$ effect size (e.s.) = 0.906] and NumFam ($F_t = 32.2755$, p = 0; $\sigma^2 = 0.511$; e.s. = 0.715) were obtained, thus rejecting the null hypothesis of equal trimmed means for both variables across species, and revealing huge effect sizes (>0.8). A Wilcox robust post hoc test of the trimmed mean NumR and NumFam comparisons across pairs of species confirms that all those involving S. maltophilia are very highly significant (p = 0; Supplementary Figures S15A,B and Tables S7, S8), as indicated by asterisks on the $mean_{(tr = 0.2)}$ plots shown in Figures 4C,D.

Sample sizes for *S. maltophilia* isolates recovered from sites with high and low pollution were large enough (**Figure 4E**) to test the hypothesis of equal NumR and NumFam conditional on pollution level. We used the robust *yuenbt* (tr = 0.2, nboot = 998) method for independent mean comparisons (Wilcox, 2016). The tests for NumR [$T_y = 2.1964$, p = 0.038; mean(tr = 0.2) difference = 1.233, $CI_{95\%} = (0.0663, 2.4004)$, e.s. = 0.43] and for NumFam [$T_y = 2.6951$, p = 0.022; mean(tr = 0.2) difference = 0.95, $CI_{95\%} = (0.1636, 1.7364)$, e.s. = 0.5], indicating that both variables have significantly higher values in the high-pollution sites (**Figures 4G,H**). However, given that the 95% CI_s of the mean NumR comparison overlap (**Figure 4G**), and that a

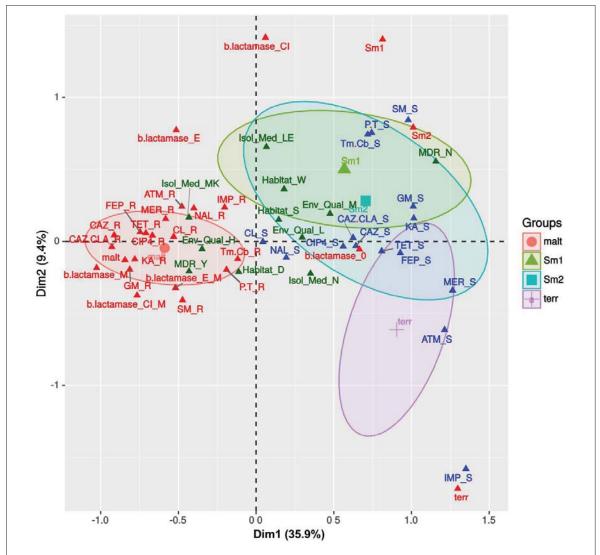


FIGURE 3 | Multivariate correspondence analysis (MCA) factor –individuals biplot map, summarizing the associations between antibiotic resistance profiles, β-lactamase production phenotypes and species assignations. The state of 17 active variables (IMP, imipenem; MER, meropenem; CAZ, ceftazidime; CAZ.CLA, ceftazidime/clavulanate; FEP, cefepime; ATM, aztreonam, b.lactamase, species; Tm.Cb, trimethoprim + carbenicillin; CL, chloramphenicol; SM, streptomycin; GM, gentamicin; KA, kanamycin; PT, piperacillin/tazobactam; NAL, nalidixic acid; CIP4, ciprofloxacin; TET, tetracycline) and 4 supplementary categorical variables [Habitat, Env_Qual (environmental quality), Isol_Med (isolation medium), MDR] are shown, sorted along the first two dimensions that together explain 45.3% of the total variance. Some variables like CTX4 (cefotaxime) were excluded, due to lack of variability in the observed states. Species name abbreviations are as follows: malt = S. maltophilia; Sm1 = Smc1; Sm2 = Smc2; terr = S. terrae.

high number of tied (repeated) values occur (**Figure 4E**), we run also Wilcox's robust percentile bootstrap method for comparing medians [medpb2(nboot=2000)], which provides good control over the probability of Type I error when tied values occur. For NumR the test could not reject the null of equal medians [$M^*=1$, p=0.094, $CI_{95\%}=(0,2.5)$], but was significant for NumFam [$M^*=1$, p=0.0495, $CI_{95\%}=(0,2)$].

Stenotrophomonas Species Differ in their β -Lactamase Expression Patterns and Only S. maltophilia Strains Express Metallo- β -Lactamases

Association plots (**Figure 5**) revealed a very highly significant association ($p \approx 0$) between species and type of β -lactamases

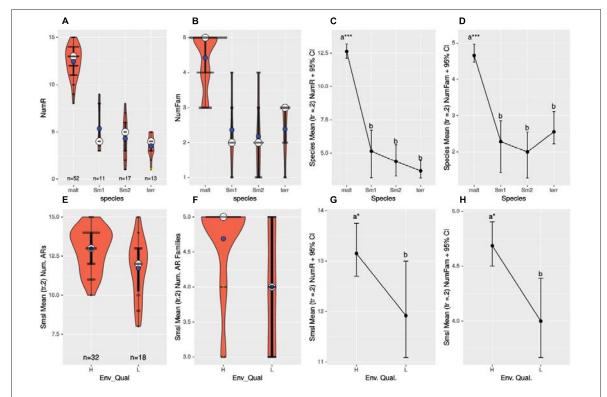


FIGURE 4 | (A,B,E,F) display violin and boxplots for the raw count data of number of resistances to individual antimicrobials (NumR) and distinct drug families (NumFam) for Mexican environmental isolates. The big white dot shows the median and the smaller blue one the mean of the distribution of individual observations, represented as small open circles. Yellow dots indicate outlier data points. (C,D,G,H) Show meanplots for NumR and NumFam (see labels on the ordinates) for 20% trimmed means and 95% confidence intervals estimated by non-parametric bootstrap (nboot = 1000). Upper row panels (A–D) correspond to analyses for the Mexican isolates classified in the four species/lineages indicated on the x-axes. Lower panels (E–H) correspond to Mexican S. maltophilia isolates recovered from high and low pollution sites, based on the criteria indicated on Table 1. The 4 S. maltophilia isolates recovered from sites with intermediate contamination level were excluded, as only populations of organisms with > 10 isolates were considered. Species codes are as defined in Figure 3.

expressed (Supplementary Figure S11). Metallo- β -lactamase expression was significantly and exclusively associated with S. *maltophilia* isolates. Most isolates from the Smc1 and Smc2 lineages did not express any kind of β -lactamase, although expression of extended spectrum of β -lactamases could be detected in a few isolates of these species. No β -lactamase expression was detected in S. *terrae* isolates.

The Prevalence of Environmental Stenotrophomonas Species Recovered from Mexican Rivers Is Significantly Associated with Habitat and Pollution Level

We performed a multi-way association analysis to test the null hypothesis that *Stenotrophomonas* species prevalence is independent of isolation habitat (sediment vs. water column), the pollution level of the sampling site (**Table 1**) and isolation medium (**Figure 6**). The test strongly rejects the null hypothesis (p < 0.00001). *S. maltophilia* was mainly recovered on MK

plates, being significantly associated with polluted sediments. The Smc1 lineage displayed a moderately significant association with clean water columns, although some isolates could also be recovered from contaminated sediments using NAA, which is consistent with the MCA results presented in Figure 3. In contrast, Smc2 isolates were very significantly overrepresented in the water columns of clean rivers and underrepresented in sediments, suggesting a high level of ecological specialization. S. terrae isolates were mainly recovered on oligotrophic NAA plates from the sediments of clean sites (Table 1).

DISCUSSION

In this study we demonstrate the power of complementary phylogenetic and population genetics approaches to delimit genetically and ecologically coherent species among a diverse collection of environmental isolates of the genus *Stenotrophomonas*. Importantly, this is done based exclusively on molecular evolutionary criteria (Vinuesa et al., 2005b), without

88

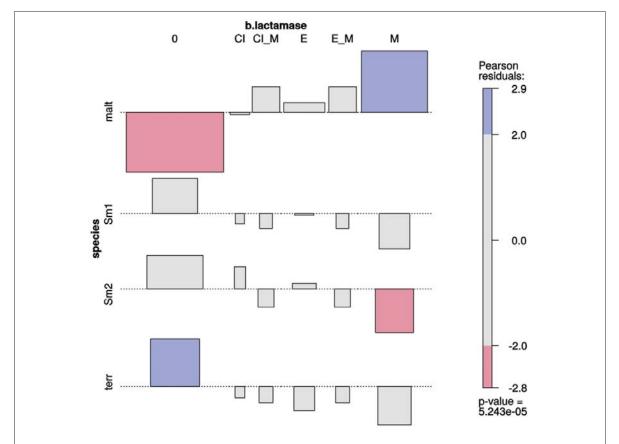


FIGURE 5 | Two-way association plot for the categorical variables species and β-lactamase production phenotype and Stenotrophomonas species containing > 10 Mexican environmental isolates. The bars on the plot represent the Pearson residuals, the color code and the height of the bars denote the significance level and magnitude of the residuals, and their widths are proportional to the sample size. The β-lactamase codes are as follows: 0 = no β-lactamase activity detected; CI = clavulanate-inducible class A or class C (AmpC) cephalosporinase; $CI_M = clavulanate$ -inducible cephalosporinase plus metallo β-lactamase (MBL); $EI_M = ESBL$ plus MBL; $EI_M = ESBL$ plus

using any arbitrary sequence or phenetic similarity cut-off values, as embraced by the standard polyphasic approach that dominates current bacterial taxonomic practice (Kämpfer and Glaeser, 2012). The robustness of the species delimitations proposed here are supported by the statistically significant associations they exhibit with distinct habitat preferences, antibiotic resistance profiles, MDR status and β -lactamase expression phenotypes.

To our knowledge, this is the first study that used the MSC model (Rannala and Yang, 2003; Edwards et al., 2007; Degnan and Rosenberg, 2009) coupled with Bayes factor (BF) analyses (Kass and Raftery, 1995) for microbial species delimitation. The MSC model has the virtue of relaxing the implicit assumption made by the concatenation approach that the phylogeny of each gene is shared and equal to that of the species tree. Although this assumption is problematic, the concatenation approach is the current standard in microbial multilocus sequence analysis (Gevers et al., 2005; Vinuesa, 2010; Glaeser and Kampfer, 2015), including phylogenomics (Rokas et al., 2003; Wu and

Eisen, 2008). It has been shown that phylogenetic estimates from concatenated datasets under coalescence are inconsistent (Kubatko and Degnan, 2007; Song et al., 2012), that is, converge to wrong solutions with higher probability as the number of concatenated loci increases. However, the impact of this inconsistency still needs to be thoroughly evaluated with clonally multiplying microbial organisms experiencing different rates of recombination (Hedge and Wilson, 2014). In our analyses, the topology of the ML phylogeny inferred from the concatenated dataset (Figure 1) is largely congruent with the Bayesian species tree inferred under the MSC (Supplementary Figure S8). It is worth noting that the numbers on the branches in this type of species tree denote the estimated population sizes. That of S. maltophilia is about 1 order of magnitude larger than the population size estimates for the Smc1 and Smc2 genospecies (Supplementary Figure S8), which reflects the genetic heterogeneity of strains grouped in the S. maltophilia lineage, which includes the majority of the Mexican isolates,

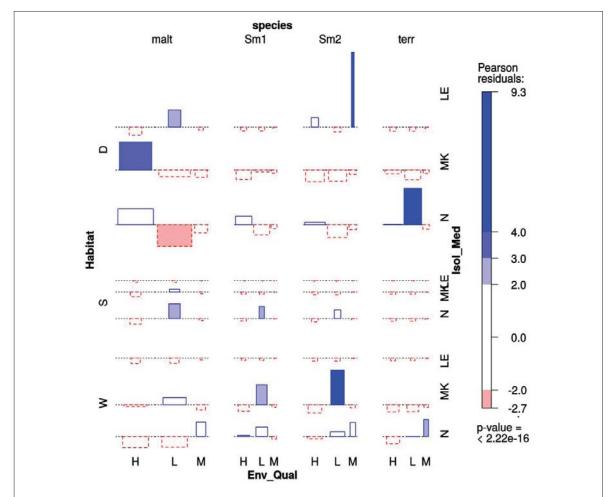


FIGURE 6 | Four-way association plot showing the results of multiway-chi-square analysis for the categorical variables species (abbreviations as defined in Figure 3), habitat (W = water column; S = flooded soil; D = sediment), isolation medium (N = NAA; MK = MacConkey; LE = Leed's Medium) and pollution level (H = high; L = low; M = intermediate, based on counts of thermotolerant coliforms and E. coli, as defined in Table 1), using Friendly's residual coloring scheme to highlight the significant associations. Species codes are as defined in Figure 3. The bars on the plot represent the Pearson residuals, the color code and the height of the bars denote the significance level and magnitude of the residuals, and their widths are proportional to the sample size.

along with reference strains from the pubmlst.org and genome databases, isolated across the globe. Lumping this heterogeneous set of recombining sub-lineages into a single species results in coalescent events higher up in the species tree than those observed for the Smc1 and Smc2 lineages. This is consistent with the marked internal structure revealed by the Bayesian structure analysis within *S. maltophilia* (Figure 2), which suggests that additional cryptic species may be found within the *S. maltophilia* lineage. Patil and colleagues recently proposed that the type strains of *S. africana*, *P. beteli* and *P. hibiscicola*, which are phylogenetically placed within the *S. maltophilia* clade (Figure 1A), and have been reclassified as *S. maltophilia*, actually represent distinct species, based on their estimates of genomic average nucleotide identity values < 94% (Patil et al., 2016).

In our view, these clusters represent incipient species that are still capable of recombining between them, as suggested by the admixture found in the STRUCTURE barplots (Figure 2) and by our estimates for recombination within *S. maltophilia* (Table 5). Further investigations involving comparative and population genomics are required to identify clear signatures of speciation within the *S. maltophilia* sub-lineages, including "speciation genes and islands" (Shapiro et al., 2016). Despite the conservative approach taken in this study, the BF analysis provides statistical support in favor of splitting the *S. maltophilia* complex as currently defined in pubmlst.org into the following 5 broad evolutionary lineages: *S. maltophilia* and the genospecies Smc1 to Smc4. Overwhelming support (ln-BF > 5) was also obtained indicating that genogroup #10 (Vasileuskaya-Schulz

et al., 2011), the sister clade of *S. rhizophila* (genogroup #8), constitutes an independent, non-described species (**Table 2**). This is of practical importance from a biotechnological perspective because it has been argued that plant-associated *S. rhizophila* strains (Vasileuskaya-Schulz's genogroup #8) can be safely and easily separated from *S. maltophilia* pathogens in clade IIb (Berg and Martinez, 2015) based on 16S rRNA gene sequences and *ggpS* and *smeD* PCR-based typing (Ribbeck-Busch et al., 2005). However, it would be important to define differences of the former with strains in the sister genogroup #10, which holds both rape rhizosphere and human blood and thigh bone infection isolates. In summary, our MSC-BF analysis provided strong evidence for the existence of five new species in the analyzed dataset.

Considering that the MSC model implemented in *BEAST 2 was not specifically developed for bacteria, and given that this model has been put under criticism due to detectable model misspecification when tested on diverse empirical animal and plant datasets using posterior predictive simulations (Reid et al., 2014), it was important to evaluate the robustness of the Bayesian species delimitations with independent methods. We challenged the proposed species borders within the Smc by performing well-established population genetic analyses on our collection of environmental isolates from the sister lineages S. maltophilia, Smc1 and Smc2. We focused on detecting population genetic structure, estimating gene flow between the phylogenetically defined species, and identifying signatures of selection. Such data and evidence are predicted by current ecological models of bacterial speciation to reflect speciation events (Vinuesa et al., 2005b; Koeppel et al., 2008; Vos, 2011; Cadillo-Quiroz et al., 2012; Shapiro and Polz, 2014).

Current models of bacterial speciation suggest that groups of closely related strains that display some degree of resource partitioning, and consequently occupy different niches, will be affected by independent selective sweeps caused by the gain of a beneficial gene either by horizontal transfer or by adaptive mutation. These may sweep to fixation if recombination levels are low in relation to selection coefficients, or form so called "speciation islands or continents" in the genomes of highly recombining populations (Cadillo-Quiroz et al., 2012; Shapiro et al., 2012). Such (sympatric) populations are predicted to be discernable as sequence clusters that diverge from each other because of the fixation of different adaptive mutations. This leads to the formation of independent genetically and ecologically coherent units as gene flow between them gradually drops as they diverge by means of natural selection (Vos, 2011; Shapiro and Polz, 2014). We could show that the Mexican S. maltophilia, Smc1 and Smc2 lineages satisfy these predictions. The K^*_{ST} test statistic (Hudson et al., 1992) detected highly significant genetic differentiation between all pairs of these sympatric lineages based on DNA polymorphisms (Table 3). This is consistent with the results from the STRUCTURE analysis. Conversely, the number of migrants between these lineages was negligible, evidencing low levels of gene flow between them. Additionally, the "neutrality index" (NI), and the results of the MK tests suggest that positive selection, rather than drift, is the force promoting divergence between the lineages, which is in line with predictions from

the adaptive divergence model (Vos, 2011). However, the latter interpretation needs to be considered cautiously, as the high relative rate of between-species non-synonymous substitutions observed could also be generated by within-species purifying selection to eliminate slightly deleterious mutations (Hughes, 2005; Hughes et al., 2008). The latter interpretation is consistent with the observed negative, but not significant Tajima's D values (Table 4). These are not likely to reflect a population expansion, given the non-significant p-values of the powerful R₂ statistic for population growth, which is well suited for small sample sizes such as those of the Smc1 and Smc2 lineages (Ramos-Onsins and Rozas, 2002). We could show that recombination is an important force, providing genetic cohesion to these lineages, with Rho/theta estimates ranging from 1.11 in Smc1 to nearly 3 in S. maltophilia. Since recombination events are only detectable when a tract of multiple polymorphisms are introduced in a population, it is clear that most of the observed polymorphisms within the analyzed populations originate from recombination rather than point mutations. The high recombination levels detected within the S. maltophilia lineage suggests that speciation within this group is an ongoing, possibly not yet finished process, along a "spectrum" of speciation, resulting in "fuzzy" borders between the sub-lineages (Hanage et al., 2005; Shapiro et al., 2016). However, these can be already detected as phylogenetic and STRUCTURE clusters, even with the limited resolving power provided by the 7 gene MLST scheme used.

As predicted by the ecological speciation models recently developed for bacteria (Koeppel et al., 2008; Vos, 2011; Shapiro and Polz, 2014), the marked genetic differentiation detected between the sympatric S. maltophilia, Smc1 and Smc2 environmental populations is significantly associated with different habitat preferences, antibiotic susceptibility profiles and β-lactamase expression phenotypes. These attributes strongly suggest that these lineages have differentiated ecological niches. The significant differences in habitat preferences could provide some micro-geographic separation between the populations coexisting in the same river, which might partly explain the reduced gene flow measured between them, despite of being sister lineages, contributing to their genetic differentiation. Similar patterns have been reported for other aquatic microbes such as Desulfolobus (Oakley et al., 2010), Exiguobacterium (Rebollar et al., 2012) and Vibrio (Shapiro et al., 2012; Friedman et al., 2013). Consequently, our results support the growing body of evidence pointing to niche partitioning as a major factor promoting evolutionary divergence between closely related sympatric prokaryotic populations, even when they exhibit high levels of recombination (Shapiro and Polz,

As noted before, *S. maltophilia* is well-known as an emergent opportunistic MDR nosocomial pathogen, causing increasing morbidity and mortality (Looney et al., 2009; Brooke, 2012). Comparative genomics and functional analyses have clearly established that the MDR or extensively drug-resistant (XDR) phenotype displayed by clinical isolates of this species is largely intrinsic, resulting from the expression of a combination of several types of efflux pumps (RND, MATE, MFS and ABC types) and diverse chromosomally-encoded antibiotic resistance

genes [aph (3')-IIc, aac(6')-lz and Smqnr], including the metalloβ-lactamase *blaL1* and the inducible Ambler class A β-lactamase blaL2 (Crossman et al., 2008; Brooke, 2014; García-León et al., 2014; Sanchez, 2015; Youenou et al., 2015). However, contradictory results have been reported regarding the MDR status of environmental isolates of the Smc. For example, a recent ecological study of a large collection isolates classified as S. maltophilia recovered from diverse agricultural soils in France and Tunisa concluded that they display a high diversity of antibiotic resistance profiles, expressing resistance against 1 to 12 antibiotics, with clinical and manure isolates expressing the highest numbers (Deredjian et al., 2016). These isolates were vaguely classified as S. maltophilia based on growth on the selective VIA isolation medium (Kerr et al., 1996) and PCR detection of the smeD gene (Pinot et al., 2011). We argue that the large phenotypic variance observed in that and similar studies result from the lack of proper species delimitation. This cannot be achieved with such coarse typing methods, most likely resulting in the lumping of multiple species into S. maltophilia. In contrast, in the present study we found a very strong statistical association between the MDR condition and metallo-β-lactamase (MBL) production with the S. maltophilia lineage, whereas the sibling Smc1 and Smc2 genospecies were found to express on average resistance to <3 antibiotic families (Figures 4B,D and Supplementary Figure S13B), most strains not expressing any kind of β-lactamase, and none expressing MBLs (Figure 5). Consequently, intrinsic MDR can only be assumed for the S. maltophilia strains of clinical and environmental origin.

CONCLUSION

The results presented here provide the first in depth and integrative molecular systematic, evolutionary genetic and ecological analysis of the genus *Stenotrophomonas*. The study demonstrates that both phylogenetic and population genetic approaches are necessary for robust delimitation of natural species borders in bacteria. Failure to properly delimit such lineages hinders downstream ecological and functional analysis of species. Comparative and population genomic studies are required to resolve pending issues regarding the speciation status of the sub-lineages within *S. maltophilia*.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

All authors read and approved the manuscript. LEOS and PV conceived and designed the project. LEOS generated the collection of isolates, performed wet-lab experiments and analyzed resistance phenotypes. PV performed bioinformatic, statistical and evolutionary genetic analyses. PV wrote the manuscript.

FUNDING

This work is part of LEOS's Ph.D. project in the Programa de Doctorado en Ciencias Biomédicas, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, and was supported by a Ph.D. scholarship from Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología (CONACyT-México) and student travel scholarships from PAEP-UNAM. We gratefully acknowledge financial support obtained from CONACYT-México (grant 179133) and DGAPA-PAPIIT/UNAM (grant IN211814) to PV.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We gratefully thank Dr. Eria Rebollar and Dr. Claudia Silva for their critical reading of the manuscript. Javier Rivera Campos is acknowledged for technical support with wet-lab experiments. Antonio Trujillo from CCG-UNAM is thanked for support with field work. Don Juan Alvear Gutiérrez and Ing. Norberto Bahena are gratefully acknowledged for supporting our sampling at the natural parks Los Sauces and Las Estacas, respectively. José Alfredo Hernández and the UATI at CCG-UNAM are acknowledged for support with Linux server administration. Dr. Jesús Silva Sánchez from the INSP in Cuernavaca, Mexico, is gratefully thanked for his support throughout the work, particularly regarding the interpretation of disk-diffusion assays and for providing laboratory reagents.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

The Supplementary Material for this article can be found online at: http://journal.frontiersin.org/article/10.3389/fmicb. 2017.01548/full#supplementary-material

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94

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Conflict of Interest Statement: The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

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Anexo 2. Material suplementario del artículo 1. Evolutionary genetic analysis uncovers multiple species with distinct habitat preferences and antibiotic resistance phenotypes in the Stenotrophomonas maltophilia complex

Evolutionary genetic analysis uncovers multiple species with distinct habitat preferences and antibiotic resistance phenotypes in the Stenotrophomonas maltophilia complex

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Keywords: *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* complex taxonomy, antibiotic resistance, multidrug resistance, multispecies coalescent, population genetic structure, recombination, metallo-beta-lactamase, niche partitioning.

Running title: Stenotrophomonas evolutionary genetics and ecology

Supplementary materials

Frontiers in Microbiology | August 2017 | Volume 8 | Article 1548 http://journal.frontiersin.org/article/10.3389/fmicb.2017.01548/



Figure S1. Maps and pictures showing the location and aspect of the 6 sampling sites in 4 rivers and streams in Morelos, Central Mexico, analyzed in this work. The coordinates of the sites and other characteristics are presented in Table 1 of the main text.

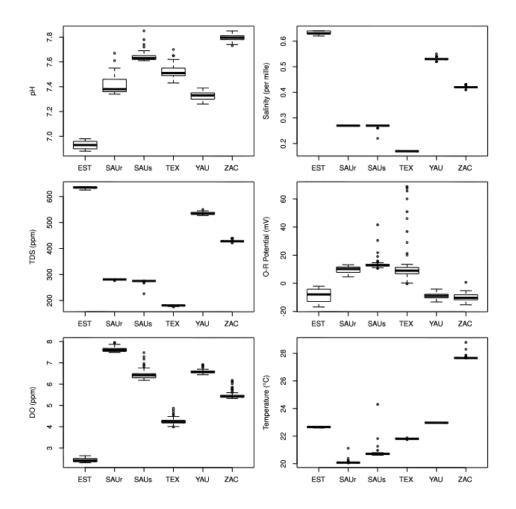


Figure S2. Parallel boxplots summarizing the distribution of values for 6 environmental parameters measured at the 6 sampling sites. The measurements for each site were taken with a HANNA multiparametric HI9828 instrument operated in continuous measurement mode for 1 min, along a 10 m transect at each sampling site. (TDS = total dissolved solutes; O-R = oxido-reduction; DO = dissolved oxygen).

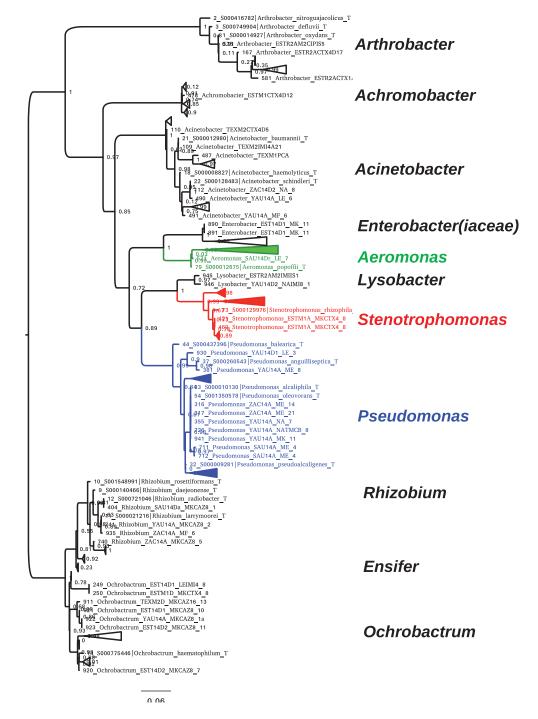


Figure S3. Classification of 697 environmental isolates at the genus level based on maximum likelihood phylogeny of 16S rRNA sequences. Support values on the branches are Shimodaria-Hasegawa-like approximate likelihood ratio test values. Large clades with many sequences are collapsed. Bar represents the expected number of substitutions per site under the GTR+G model.

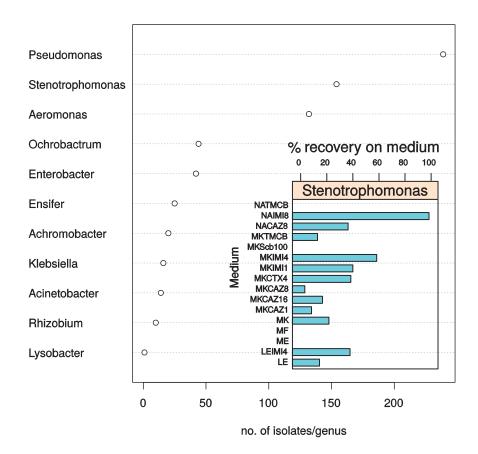


Figure S4. Recovery statistics for different genera (dotplot) and for *Stenotrophomonas* (inset barplot) on the different media amended or not with antibiotics (μ g/ml). The media used were: NA = NAA; MK = MacConkey; MF MF=mFC; ME = mTEC; LE = Leeds LAM medium, which are described in the main text. A total of 697 strains were sequenced, and 22.1% of them corresponded to *Stenotrophomonas* spp. based on the 16S phylogenetic classification shown in Fig. S3.

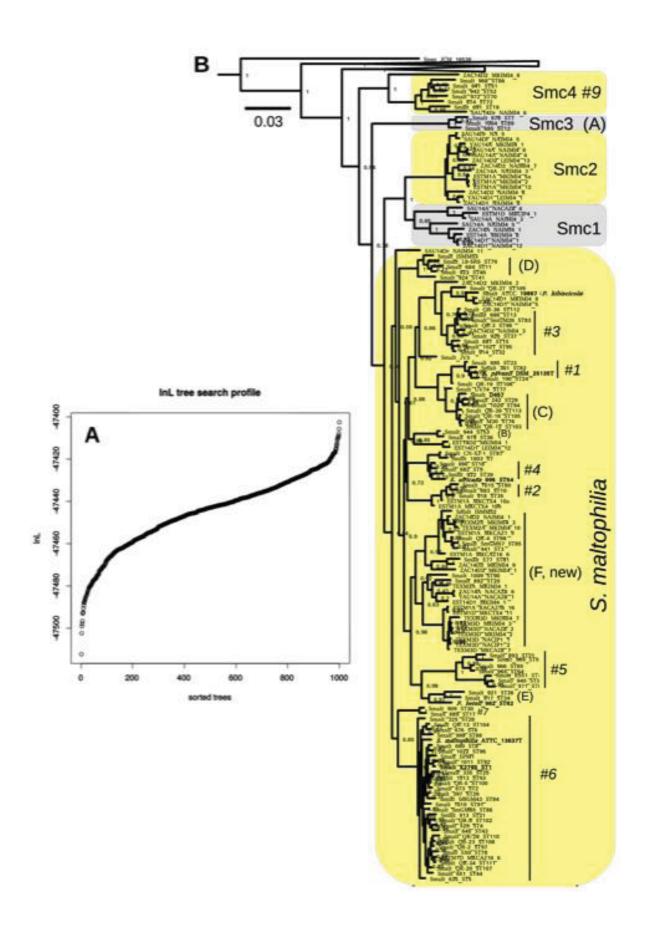


Figure S5. Results of the maximum-likelihood tree search. **A)** Sorted log-likelihood profile for the 10001 tree searches conducted under the maximum-likelihood criterion, starting from 1000 random trees and 1 BioNJ tree. The top-scoring phylogeny of this search is presented in Figures 1A and 1B in the main text. The $\ln L$ range = (-47512,-47403). The search started from the BioNJ tree reached a score of -47478.6287. **B)** The same tree as shown in Fig. 1B of the main text, but without collapsing the terminal clades containing only reference strains.

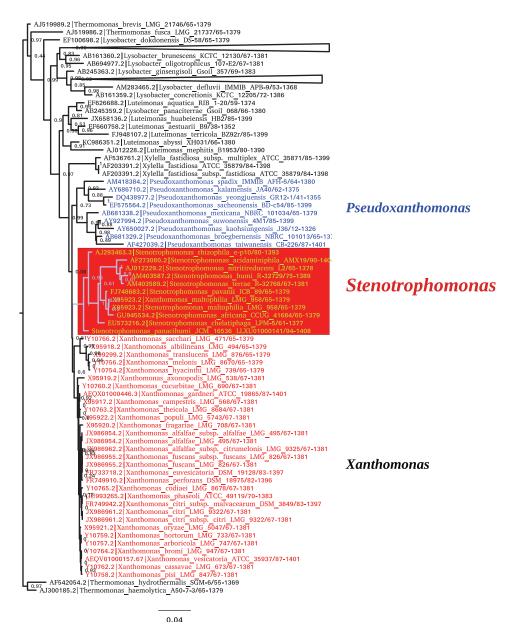
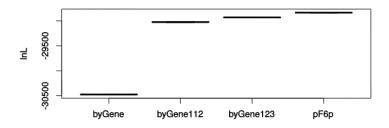


Figure S6. Maximum likelihood phylogeny of nearly full-length 16S rRNA gene sequences corresponding to the type strains of all species in the order *Xanthomonadales*. Some clades distantly related to the focal ones were collapsed to improve the legibility of the leave labels.

stepping-stone sampling analysis for partitioning scheme selection



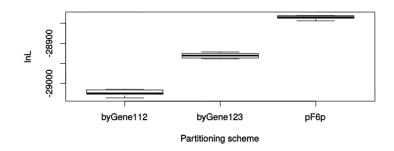


Figure S7. Parallel boxplots summarizing the results of the stepping-stone sampling analyses based on 10 replicate runs for each partitioning scheme, as detailed in methods. The graphs clearly show that the pF6p proposed by PartitionFinder (see previous section) is the best-fitting partitioning scheme of the four ones tested.

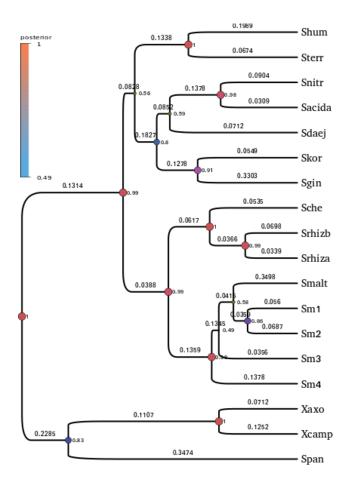


Figure S8. Consensus post-burnin (50%) Bayesian species tree from 3 replicate *BEAST runs. Most bipartitions have a significant (>0.95) posterior probability (color-coded circles at nodes), indicating that the data strongly support the topology. The exceptions are the splits subtending the Smc3 (Sm2) and *S. maltophilia* (Smalt) branches, which is most likely due to the very large population size estimated for the latter (indicated on the branches), suggesting that Smalt may contain further cryptic species. Species name abbreviations are as follows: Shum = *S. humi*; Sterr = *S. terrae*; Snitr = *S. nitrireducens*; Sacida = *S. acidaminiphila*; Sdaej = *S. daejeonesis*; Skor = *S. koreensis*; Sgin = S. *ginsengisoli*; Sche = *S. chelatiphaga*; Srhiz(ab) = *S. rhizophila*; Smalt = *S. maltophilia*; Sm1 = Smc1; Sm2 = Smc2; Sm2 = Smc3; Sm4 = Smc4; Xaxo = *Xanthomonas axonopodis*; Xcamp = *X. campestris*; Span = *S. panacihumi*.

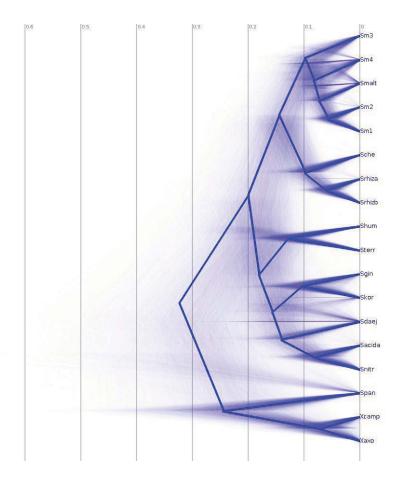


Figure S9. DensiTree (see methods) representation of the merged (3 replicate runs) post-burnin (50%) samples of *BEAST runs for the same best hypothesis shown in Fig. S8, which reveals that the source trees clearly support the separation of each species lineage, with uncertainty increasing towards the root, as expected. This tree represents the best-fitting species-delimitation hypothesis of those tested (see Figs 1A and 1B as well as Table 2 in the main text), which favors splitting the *S. maltophilia* complex into 5 species, as shown in Fig. 1B of the main text), and considering the lineages #8 and #10 as separate species (Fig. 1A).

Absolute frequencies for STs of Mexican SMC isolates

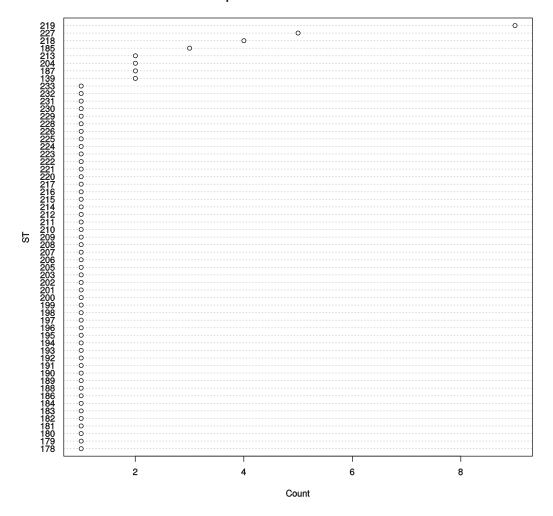


Figure S10. Cleveland dot-chart showing the absolute frequencies of the novel sequence types (STs) detected in the collection of Mexican *S. maltophilia* complex isolates. These rang from ST178 to ST233, as listed in Table S4.

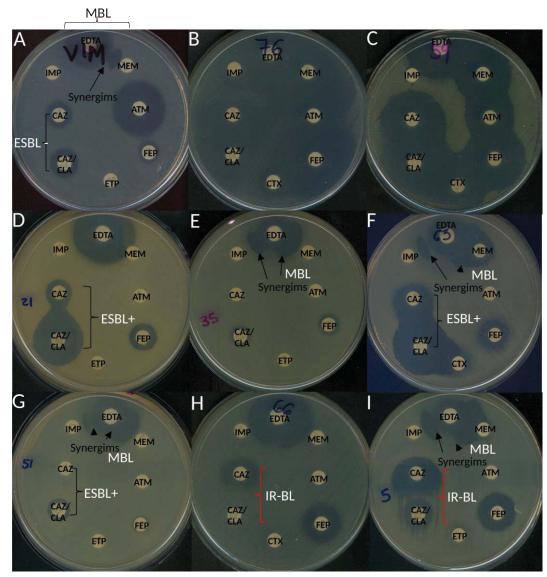


Fig. S11. Diversity of β-lactamase expression phenotypes detected among the Mexican environmental *Stenotrophomonas* isolates (B-I) using the double disk synergy (DDS) assay and the CLSI breakpoints listed in Table S2. **A**) classical MBL (VIM-2) producing phenotype expressed by a clinical *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strain used as a control, and displaying a clear synergism between the carbapenem antibiotic meropenem (MER) and the EDTA disc. In this control strain we can also see the lack of Aztreonam (ATM) hidrolysis, as MBLs can't hydrolyze it. The lack of synergism between CAZ and CAZ / CLA reveals that this particular *P. aeruginosa* strain does not produce extended-spectrum β-lactamases (ESBL negative). **B**) A highly sensitive *S. terrae* strain EST14D2_NAIMI4_5 is shown, which is fully sensitive to all antibiotics tested (coding = 0). **C**) The picture depicts the highly sensitive Sm2 strain SAU14Dr_NAIMI4_5, sensitive to all β-lactams (no ESBL or MBL production), except to the carbapenem imipenem. **D**) The Smc2 strain ESTM1D_MKCIP4_1 displays a clear synergism between CAZ and CAZ / CLA, revealing the production of an ESBL (coding = E). **E**) Depicts the synergism

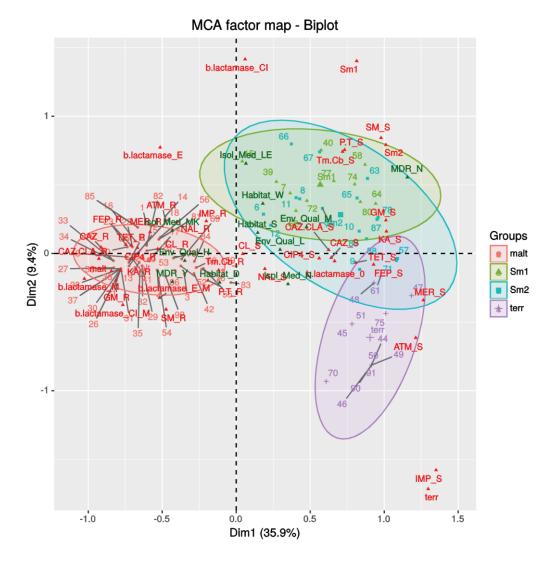


Fig. S12. Individuals-Factor biplot map resulting from the multiple correspondence analysis (MCA) of 17 active variables (red-coloured), four supplementary categorical variables (habitat, isolation medium, environmental quality and MDR status). The ellipses enclose individuals assigned to the four most abundant species (> 10 isolates) recovered from Mexican rivers, at the 95% confidence interval. Species name abbreviations are as follows: malt = S. maltophilia; Sm1 = Smc1; Sm2 = Smc2; terr = S. terrae.

A B

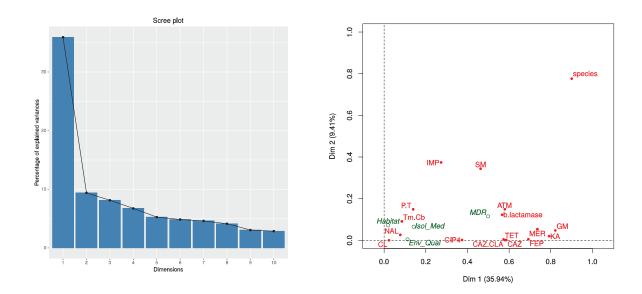


Fig. S13. Screeplot (A) for the first 10 dimensions of the MCA presented in Fig. S12 and the variable plot (B) showing their correlations with the first and second dimensions.

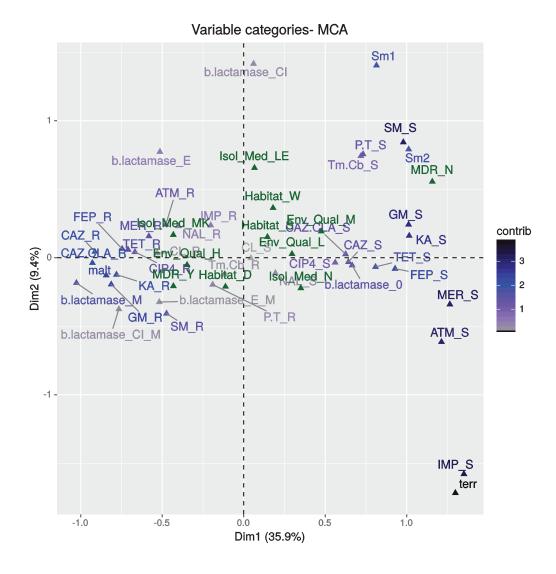


Figure S14. The Variable-categories plot, showing their contributions coded as indicated on the color scale.

Plate antibiotic resistance profiling and CLSI break points

Table S1. CLSI 2016 breakpoints for plate assays.

| | Break points CLSI 2016 (plate assays) Interpretative criteria (concantrations in μg/mL) ^b | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|-----------|-------------------|---------------------------------|----|----------------|-------------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------------|
| Antimicrobial Agent ^a *This work (µg /ml) | Pseudomonas aeruginosa | | | Stenotrophomonas maltophilia | | | Enterobacteriaceae | | |
| | S | I | R | S | I | R | S | I | R |
| 1 Beta-lactams | | | | | | | | | |
| a) Cephems: Ceftazidime 16 Cefotaxime 4 b) Carbapenems: Imipenem 4 c) Beta-lactamase/ inhibitor combinations: | <u>≤</u> 8 | 16 4 | <u>≥</u> 32 ≥8 | <u><</u> 8 | 16 | <u>></u> 32 | ≤4 ≤1 ≤1 | 8 2 2 | ≥16 ≥ 4 ≥4 |
| Piperacillin-tazobactam 128/4 | ≤16/4 | 32/4-64/4 | ≥128/4 | | | | ≤16/4 | 32/4-64/4 | ≥128/4 |
| 2 Aminoglycosides: Gentamicin 16 Kanamycin 64 Streptomycin 50 | <u>≤</u> 4 | 8 | <u>≥</u> 16 | | | | <4 <16 *There are | 8 32 no MIC interpretati | ≥16 >64 ve standards |
| 3 Phenicols: Chlorampheinicol 30 | | | | <u>≤</u> 8 | 16 | ≥32 | ≤8 | 16 | ≥32 |
| 4 Quinolones: Nalidixic acid 32 Fluoroquinolones: | -1 | 2 | | | | | <u>≤</u> 16 | _ | <u>≥</u> 32 |
| Ciprofloxacin 4 5 Tetracyclines: Tetracycline 16 | <u><</u> 1 | | <u>≥4</u> | | | | <u>≤</u> 1 | 8 | <u>≥4</u> ≥16 |
| 6 Folate Pathway nhibitors: Trimethoprim 30 + carbenicilin 100 | | | | | | | | Trimethoprii – | |

^aAntimicrobials assayed and their classification in families, as used in this work.

from Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Enterobacteriaceae.

^bbreakpoints for plate assays currently not available for *Stenotrophomonas* in CLSI 2016 were taken

Double disk synergism (DDS) assay for β -lactamase expression phenotyping and CLSI interpretative criteria for inhibition zones

Briefly, seven antibiotic discs [meropenem ($10~\mu g$), imipenem ($10~\mu g$), ertapenem ($10~\mu g$), aztreonam ($30~\mu g$), ceftazidime ($30~\mu g$), ceftazidime-clavulanic acid ($30/4~\mu g$) and cefepime ($30~\mu g$)] (AB Bodish, Solna, Sweden) and one disc with $0.5~M~EDTA~pH~8.0~(5~\mu g)$ were placed on a lawn of each strain grown on Mueller-Hinton plates. These were incubated at $30^{\circ}C$ for 24-48 hrs, measuring the diameter of growth-inhibition halos around disks (Table S2), and recording synergisms between them.

Table S2. CLSI 2016 breakpoints for disk-diffusion assays.

| Antimicrobial | Break points CLSI 2016 (disc-diffusion assays) Inhibition zone diameter Interpretative criteria (nearest whole mm) ^a | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|----------------|------------|--------------------|-------------------------|-------------------|--|--|--|
| Agent *This work (μg) | Pseudomonas aeruginosa | | | Enterobacteriaceae | | | | | |
| (#3) | S | I | R | S | I | R | | | |
| 1 Beta-lactams | | | | | | | | | |
| a) Cephems: ceftazidime 30 cefotaxime 30 cefepime 30 | ≥18 ≥18 | 15-17 15-17 | ≤14 ≤14 | ≥21 ≥26 ≥25 | 18-20 23-25 – | ≤17 ≤22 ≤18 | | | |
| b) Carbapenems: imipenem 10 meropenem 10 ertapenem 10 | ≥19 ≥19 | 16-18 16-18 | ≤15 ≤15 | >23 >23 >22 | 20–22 20–22 19–21 | ≤19 ≤18 ≤18 | | | |
| c) Beta-lactamase inhibitor combinations: ceftazidime/cavulanate 30/10 | | | | | | | | | |
| 2 Monobactams aztreonam 30 | <u>></u> 22 | 16-21 | ≤15 | ≥21 | 18-20 | ≤17 | | | |

^aBreakpoints for disk-diffusion assays are currently not available for *Stenotrophomonas* in CLSI 2016. Therefore we used the breakpoints for *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Enterobacteriaceae*.

Supplementary protocol 1: PCR amplification of 16S rDNA sequences and their phylogenetic analysis

Only the forward strand was sequenced for each amplicon with the fD1 primer, using capillary Sanger-sequencing commercially performed at Macrogen (South Korea). Raw reads were trimmed based on

Phred scores using phred (Ewing et al., 1998) and classified at the genus level using an in-house pipeline programmed in Perl that queries each sequence via blastn (Camacho et al., 2009) against a local instance of high quality, nearly full-length *rrs* sequences of bacterial type strains downloaded from the RDP-II server (Cole et al., 2007), retrieving the five closest hits. A local instance of prealigned sequences for this same *rrs* dataset downloaded from the RDP-II server was used to generate multiple sequence alignments of the newly generated sequences and selected blastn hits using the sequence to profile alignment function implemented in clustalw2 (Larkin et al., 2007). The resulting alignment was subjected to maximum-likelihood phylogenetic analysis with phyml 3 (Guindon et al., 2010), under best-fitting substitution models selected by jModelTest2 (Darriba et al., 2012).

Table S3. Summary of allele and ST assignations for Mexican isolates in the *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* complex (Smc1=11, Smc2=15, *S. maltophilia* = 52), based on the ST profiles availabe at http://pubmlst.org/perl/bigsdb/bigsdb.pl?
http://pubmlst_smaltophilia_seqdef&page=downloadProfiles&scheme_id=1, and downloaded on Nov. 18th, 2016.

| gene | Number of New alleles | New allele numbers |
|------|-----------------------|--------------------|
| atpD | 24 | 87 to 110 |
| gapA | 27 | 95 to 121 |
| guaA | 38 | 124 to 161 |
| mutM | 43 | 81to 123 |
| nuoD | 29 | 89 to 117 |
| ppsA | 42 | 107 to148 |
| recA | 29 | 87 to115 |

Table S4. Allele and ST assignations for each of the 77 Mexican isolate from the Smc, based on the http://pubmlst.org/smaltophilia/ MLST database, which was last queried on Nov. 18th, 2016, corresponding to the database update from 2016-10-27, when it contained 663 sequences, 177 STs and 266 isolates.

| strain | atpD | gapA | guaA | mutM | nuoD | ppsA | recA | ST |
|-------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-----|
| EST14A_MKIMI4_8 | 21 | 95 | 124 | 81 | 89 | 107 | 87 | 178 |
| ESTM1D_MKCIP4_1 | 87 | 96 | 125 | 82 | 90 | 108 | 88 | 179 |
| SAU14A_NACAZ8_4 | 87 | 97 | 126 | 83 | 90 | 109 | 60 | 180 |
| SAU14A_NAIMI4_3 | 87 | 97 | 126 | 84 | 90 | 110 | 89 | 181 |
| SAU14A_NAIMI4_5 | 88 | 98 | 127 | 85 | 91 | 111 | 90 | 182 |
| SAU14Dr_NAIMI4_8 | 89 | 99 | 128 | 86 | 92 | 112 | 91 | 183 |
| ZAC14A_NAIMI4_1 | 90 | 100 | 129 | 87 | 93 | 113 | 92 | 184 |
| ZAC14D1_MKIMI4_2 | 91 | 95 | 130 | 88 | 94 | 114 | 93 | 185 |
| ZAC14D1_NAIMI4_1 | 91 | 95 | 130 | 88 | 94 | 114 | 93 | 185 |
| ZAC14D1_NAIMI4_12 | 91 | 95 | 130 | 89 | 94 | 114 | 93 | 186 |
| ZAC14D1_NAIMI4_6 | 91 | 95 | 130 | 88 | 94 | 114 | 93 | 185 |
| ESTM1A_MKIMI1_10 | 92 | 101 | 131 | 90 | 95 | 115 | 94 | 187 |
| ESTM1A_MKIMI4_12 | 92 | 101 | 131 | 90 | 96 | 115 | 94 | 188 |
| ESTM1A_MKIMI4_2 | 92 | 101 | 131 | 90 | 95 | 115 | 94 | 187 |
| ESTM1A_MKIMI4_5a | 92 | 101 | 132 | 90 | 95 | 115 | 94 | 189 |
| SAU14A_NAIMI4_4 | 93 | 102 | 133 | 91 | 97 | 116 | 95 | 190 |
| SAU14A_NAIMI4_8 | 93 | 102 | 133 | 92 | 97 | 116 | 95 | 191 |
| SAU14Dr_NAIMI4_5 | 94 | 103 | 134 | 93 | 98 | 117 | 96 | 192 |
| SAU14Dr_NA_5 | 94 | 103 | 134 | 93 | 99 | 117 | 96 | 193 |
| YAU14A_MKIMI4_1 | 93 | 102 | 135 | 94 | 97 | 118 | 95 | 194 |
| YAU14D1_LEIMI4_1 | 95 | 104 | 136 | 95 | 100 | 119 | 97 | 195 |
| ZAC14A_NAIMI4_3 | 94 | 105 | 137 | 96 | 101 | 120 | 98 | 196 |
| ZAC14D1_NAIMI4_9 | 96 | 104 | 138 | 97 | 100 | 119 | 97 | 197 |
| ZAC14D2_LEIMI4_13 | 93 | 106 | 139 | 91 | 97 | 121 | 95 | 198 |
| ZAC14D2_NAIMI4_6 | 97 | 103 | 140 | 98 | 102 | 122 | 99 | 199 |
| ZAC14D2_NAIMI4_7 | 98 | 103 | 141 | 99 | 103 | 123 | 100 | 200 |
| EST14D1_LEIMI4_12 | 74 | 79 | 142 | 100 | 87 | 124 | 101 | 201 |
| EST14D1_MKIM4_1 | 99 | 107 | 143 | 101 | 104 | 125 | 102 | 202 |
| EST14D2_LEIMI4_14 | 81 | 108 | 144 | 102 | 105 | 126 | 103 | 203 |
| EST14D2_MKIMI4_1 | 74 | 109 | 145 | 103 | 87 | 127 | 101 | 204 |
| EST14D2_MKIMI4_2 | 74 | 109 | 145 | 103 | 87 | 127 | 101 | 204 |
| ESTM1A_MKCAZ16_6 | 100 | 8 | 146 | 104 | 4 | 15 | 104 | 205 |
| ESTM1A_MKCAZ1_5 | 101 | 110 | 147 | 105 | 18 | 128 | 105 | 206 |
| ESTM1A_MKCTX4_10a | 6 | 111 | 148 | 18 | 106 | 129 | 20 | 207 |
| ESTM1A_MKCTX4_10b | 6 | 111 | 148 | 18 | 106 | 130 | 106 | 208 |
| ESTM1A_RACAZ16_16 | 102 | 112 | 149 | 106 | 107 | 131 | 107 | 209 |

| ESTM1D MKCAZ16 6 | 3 | 4 | 110 | 46 | 6 | 38 | 58 | 139 |
|-------------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| ESTM1D MKCTX4 11 | 102 | 112 | 149 | 106 | 107 | 132 | 107 | 210 |
| SAU14A NAIMI4 1 | 66 | 68 | 128 | 107 | 108 | 133 | 60 | 211 |
| SAU14Da NACAZ8 10 | 103 | 113 | 150 | 108 | 109 | 134 | 108 | 212 |
| SAU14Da NAIMI4 8 | 104 | 114 | 151 | 109 | 110 | 135 | 109 | 213 |
| SAU14Dr NACAZ8 5 | 43 | 13 | 52 | 27 | 111 | 136 | 17 | 214 |
| SAU14Dr NAIMI4 11 | 104 | 114 | 151 | 109 | 110 | 135 | 109 | 213 |
| TEXM2A MKIMI4 10 | 105 | 115 | 152 | 110 | 4 | 137 | 110 | 215 |
| TEXM2A_MKIMI4_3 | 105 | 115 | 152 | 111 | 4 | 138 | 110 | 216 |
| TEXM3A_MKIMI4_1 | 106 | 116 | 153 | 112 | 112 | 139 | 111 | 217 |
| TEXM3A_NACIP1_4 | 102 | 112 | 154 | 106 | 107 | 140 | 107 | 218 |
| TEXM3D_MKCAZ8_3 | 102 | 112 | 154 | 106 | 107 | 141 | 107 | 219 |
| TEXM3D_MKCAZ8_7 | 102 | 112 | 154 | 106 | 107 | 140 | 107 | 218 |
| TEXM3D_MKIMI4_2 | 102 | 112 | 154 | 113 | 107 | 141 | 107 | 220 |
| TEXM3D_MKIMI4_3 | 102 | 112 | 154 | 114 | 107 | 141 | 107 | 221 |
| TEXM3D_MKIMI4_4 | 102 | 112 | 154 | 106 | 107 | 141 | 107 | 219 |
| TEXM3D_MKIMI4_5 | 102 | 112 | 154 | 106 | 107 | 141 | 107 | 219 |
| TEXM3D_MKIMI4_6 | 102 | 112 | 154 | 106 | 107 | 141 | 107 | 219 |
| TEXM3D_MKIMI4_7 | 102 | 112 | 154 | 106 | 113 | 141 | 107 | 222 |
| TEXM3D_MKIMI4_8 | 102 | 112 | 154 | 106 | 107 | 141 | 107 | 219 |
| TEXM3D_NACAZ8_1 | 102 | 112 | 154 | 106 | 107 | 141 | 107 | 219 |
| TEXM3D_NACAZ8_2 | 102 | 112 | 154 | 115 | 107 | 141 | 107 | 223 |
| TEXM3D_NACIP1_1 | 102 | 112 | 154 | 106 | 107 | 141 | 107 | 219 |
| TEXM3D_NACIP1_2 | 102 | 112 | 154 | 116 | 107 | 141 | 107 | 224 |
| TEXM3D_NACIP1_3 | 102 | 112 | 154 | 106 | 107 | 140 | 107 | 218 |
| TEXM3D_NACIP1_4 | 102 | 112 | 154 | 106 | 107 | 140 | 107 | 218 |
| TEXM3D_NACIP1_6 | 102 | 112 | 154 | 106 | 107 | 141 | 107 | 219 |
| TEXM3D_NA_2 | 102 | 112 | 154 | 106 | 107 | 141 | 107 | 219 |
| YAU14A_NACAZ8_1 | 106 | 117 | 155 | 117 | 114 | 142 | 112 | 225 |
| YAU14A_NACAZ8_6 | 106 | 117 | 155 | 118 | 114 | 142 | 112 | 226 |
| YAU14D1_LEIMI4_7 | 3 | 4 | 110 | 46 | 6 | 38 | 58 | 139 |
| ZAC14D1_MKIMI4_10 | 81 | 118 | 156 | 119 | 72 | 143 | 113 | 227 |
| ZAC14D1_MKIMI4_6 | 81 | 118 | 156 | 119 | 72 | 143 | 113 | 227 |
| ZAC14D1_MKIMI4_8 | 81 | 118 | 157 | 119 | 72 | 143 | 79 | 228 |
| ZAC14D1_NAIMI4_10 | 81 | 118 | 156 | 119 | 72 | 143 | 113 | 227 |
| ZAC14D1_NAIMI4_5 | 81 | 118 | 156 | 119 | 72 | 143 | 113 | 227 |
| ZAC14D1_NA_5 | 81 | 118 | 156 | 119 | 72 | 143 | 113 | 227 |
| ZAC14D2_MKIMI4_1 | 107 | 119 | 158 | 120 | 115 | 144 | 114 | 229 |
| ZAC14D2_MKIMI4_2 | 108 | 90 | 159 | 121 | 6 | 145 | 80 | 230 |
| ZAC14D2_MKIMI4_9 | 109 | 120 | 158 | 122 | 116 | 146 | 115 | 231 |
| ZAC14D2_NAIMI4_1 | 110 | 8 | 160 | 33 | 4 | 147 | 110 | 232 |
| ZAC14D2_NAIMI4_3 | 13 | 121 | 161 | 123 | 117 | 148 | 22 | 233 |

Table S5. D'Agostino's test of skewness for the species-specific NumR and NumFam data.

| data | skew | z | <i>p</i> -value |
|-------------------|------------|------------|-----------------|
| dfr.smalt\$NumR | -0.57897, | -1.80020, | 0.07184 |
| dfr.smalt\$NumFam | -0.88607, | -2.60780, | 0.009112** |
| dfr.sm1\$NumR | 0.43513, | 0.79391, | 0.4272 |
| dfr.sm1\$NumFam | 0.38420, | 0.70233, | 0.4825 |
| dfr.sm2\$NumR | -0.071881, | -0.152440, | 0.8788 |
| dfr.sm2\$NumFam | 0.57799, | 1.19320, | 0.2328 |
| dfr.terr\$NumR | -0.54765, | -1.04280, | 0.2971 |
| dfr.terr\$NumFam | -0.74793, | -1.40340, | 0.1605 |

Table S6. Shapiro test of normality for the total and species-specific NumR and NumFam data.

| data | W | <i>p</i> -value |
|-------------------------|---------|------------------|
| dfr.total.clean\$NumR | 0.89383 | 0.000001557*** |
| dfr.total.clean\$NumFam | 0.86688 | 0.0000001215*** |
| dfr.smalt\$NumR | 0.93796 | 0.009261** |
| dfr.smalt\$NumFam | 0.70152 | 0.00000000555*** |
| dfr.smc1\$NumR | 0.8155 | 0.01505* |
| dfr.smc1\$NumFam | 0.87859 | 0.09985 |
| dfr.smc2\$NumR | 0.94551 | 0.3895 |
| dfr.smc2\$NumFam | 0.8386 | 0.007222** |
| dfr.terr\$NumR | 0.90913 | 0.1784 |
| dfr.terr\$NumFam | 0.75584 | 0.002134** |

The following tables summarize the results of Wilcox's robust 1-way ANOVA with trimmed means (tr = .2) and bootstrap-estimated (nboot = 2000) sampling distribution for the trimmed means of the number of antibiotic resistances (NumR) and number of resistance families (NumFam).

Table S7. Wilcox's *post-hoc* analysis for the analysis of NumR by t1waybt (tr = .2; boot=2000). Test statistic: 149.9521, p-value: 0. Variance explained 0.652. Effect size 0.808

| comparisons | psihat | ci.lower | ci.upper | <i>p</i> -value |
|-------------|---------|----------|----------|-----------------|
| malt-Sm2 | 7.48214 | 5.76339 | 9.00000 | 0.0000 |
| malt-Sm1 | 8.26136 | 7.17330 | 9.39773 | 0.0000 |
| malt-terr | 8.95833 | 8.27431 | 9.72222 | 0.0000 |
| Sm2-Sm1 | 0.77922 | -1.01299 | 2.72727 | 0.5210 |
| Sm2-terr | 1.47619 | -0.07937 | 3.30159 | 0.1150 |
| Sm1-terr | 0.69697 | -0.43434 | 1.88889 | 0.3055 |

Table S8. Wilcox's *post-hoc* analysis for the analysis of NumFam by t1waybt (tr = .2; boot=2000) for NumFam. Test statistic: 51.1979; p-value: 0. Variance explained 0.723. Effect size 0.85

| comparisons | psihat | ci.lower | ci.upper | <i>p</i> -value |
|-------------|----------|----------|----------|-----------------|
| malt-Sm2 | 2.37054 | 1.70536 | 2.89286 | 0.0000 |
| malt-Sm1 | 2.65625 | 1.96307 | 3.10795 | 0.0000 |
| malt-terr | 2.10069 | 1.67708 | 2.63889 | 0.0000 |
| Sm2-Sm1 | 0.28571 | -0.49351 | 1.02597 | 0.6460 |
| Sm2-terr | -0.26984 | -0.87302 | 0.55556 | 0.6165 |
| Sm1-terr | -0.55556 | -1.07071 | 0.24242 | 0.2625 |

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Anexo 3. Genome announcements: Complete Genome Sequencing of *Stenotrophomonas acidaminiphila* ZAC14D2_NAIMI4_2, a Multidrug-Resistant Strain Isolated from Sediments of a Polluted River in Mexico, Uncovers New Antibiotic Resistance Genes and a Novel Cass-II Lasso Peptide Biosynthesis Gene Cluster





Complete Genome Sequencing of *Stenotrophomonas acidaminiphila* ZAC14D2_NAIMI4_2, a Multidrug-Resistant Strain Isolated from Sediments of a Polluted River in Mexico, Uncovers New Antibiotic Resistance Genes and a Novel Class-II Lasso Peptide Biosynthesis Gene Cluster

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Here, we report the first complete genome sequence of a *Stenotrophomonas acidaminiphila* strain, generated with PacBio RS II single-molecule real-time technology, consisting of a single circular chromosome of 4.13 Mb. We annotated mobile genetic elements and natural product biosynthesis clusters, including a novel class-II lasso peptide with a 7-residue macrolactam ring.

Received 14 October 2015 Accepted 17 October 2015 Published 10 December 2015

Citation Vinuesa P, Ochoa-Sánchez LE. 2015. Complete genome sequencing of Stenotrophomonas acidaminiphila ZAC14D2_NAIMI4_2, a multidrug-resistant strain isolated from sediments of a polluted river in Mexico, uncovers new antibiotic resistance genes and a novel class-II lasso peptide biosynthesis gene cluster. Genome Announc 3(6): e01433-15. doi:10.1128/genomeA.01433-15.

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The genus *Stenotrophomonas* currently comprises 13 validly described species (http://www.bacterio.net/stenotrophomonas.html), but genome sequences are available only for *S. maltophilia* and *S. rhizophila*. Here, we report the first and complete genome sequence of an *S. acidaminiphila* isolate. Strain ZAC14D2_NAIMI4_2 (BioProject PRJNA296415; BioSample SAMN04099006) was recovered from superficial sediments of a polluted river in Morelos, Mexico (1). Strain ZAC14D2_NAIMI4_2 was confidently classified based on a multilocus sequence analysis (1), using the 7 loci of the *S. maltophilia* scheme (2).

Genomic DNA was purified with the DNeasy blood and tissue kit (Qiagen) and sheared into \sim 10- to 20-kb fragments for PacBio library preparation and P6-C4 sequencing on one single-molecule real-time (SMRT) cell at the Yale Center for Genome Analysis (USA). The continuous long reads were assembled using the HGAP/Quiver-protocol in SMRT portal version 2.3.0.140936.p4 (3), resulting in an assembly with 1 contig. It was circularized by trimming the terminal repeats with Minimus2 (4), and subjected to three consecutive rounds of read remapping with the RS_Resequencing.1 module, resulting in a final assembly with a mean coverage of \sim 150× and 100% concordance with the reference. The size of the assembled genome is 4,138,297 bp, with a G+C content of 68.48%.

Gene calling and annotation was performed with a modified version of Prokka (5) that filters BLASTp (6) results taking query coverage (≥80%) into account, interrogates NCBI's RefSeq pro-karyotic nonredundant proteins database (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/refseq/about/nonredundantproteins), and properly classifies ncRNAs, adding the ncRNA_class attribute. A total of 3,793 genes, 3,617 coding sequences, and 16 pseudogenes were identified. Additionally, genes for 68 tRNAs, 9 rRNAs, and 1 tmRNA were annotated, plus 20 ncRNAs, 7 riboswitches (Cobalamin, Gly-

cine, SAM, and TPP), and 532 signal peptides. The annotation was enriched with prophage predictions suggested by the PHAST server (7), genomic islands detected by IslandViewer3 (8), and secondary metabolite biosynthesis gene cluster predictions made by antiSMASH version 3.0.4 (9). The annotation was manually curated. The presence of antibiotic resistance genes and antibiotic efflux pumps was further investigated using BLASTp (6) searches against locally maintained versions of the CARD (10) and Res-Finder (11) databases, and hmmscan (12) searches against Res-Fam (13). Together, these analyses revealed the presence of at least 6 RND and 3 ABC antibiotic efflux pump systems, a novel putative chloramphenicol acetyltransferase (AOT14_04360) linked to the genomic island GI_Stac2, two Ambler class-A beta-lactamases, a class-B metallo-beta-lactamase, and OqxA and QnrB20 homologues, potentially conferring resistance against fluoroquinolones. No class-1 or class-2 integrons, or ISCR elements were found.

Four gene clusters were detected, potentially encoding for the production of a homoserine lactone, a class-III bacteriocin, an aryl polyene related to Xanthomonadin (14), and a novel class-II lasso peptide. Analysis of the precursor peptide of the latter (MNSN DNTGVHADEVIVLGVASVETQ~GILQGNEPMGGEPVPGIS EE), encoded by StcA (AOT14_30750), revealed a perfect match to the consensus leader peptide motif (15), shown in boldface. The underlined residues in the core peptide (after the "~" symbol) are predicted to form a small, 7-residue macrolactam ring, as in xanthomonins (16).

Nucleotide sequence accession number. The complete genome sequence of *Stenotrophomonas acidaminiphila* strain ZAC14D2_NAIMI4_2 is available from GenBank under accession number CP012900.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

L.E.O.-S. is a doctoral student from Programa de Doctorado en Ciencias Biomédicas, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México (UNAM) and received fellowship no. 26217 from Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología (CONACyT, Mexico). This study was supported by grants CONACyT 179133 and DGAPA-PAPIIT/UNAM IN211814 to P.V.

We gratefully thank Javier Rivera Campos (CCG-UNAM) for technical support and Guilin Wang from the Yale Center for Genome Analysis, Yale University, for skillfully performing the PacBio sequencing. Alfredo Hernández Álvarez (CCG-UNAM) is acknowledged for expert support with server system administration.

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Anexo 4. Artículo GET_PHYLOMARKERS, a Software Package to Select Optimal Orthologous Clusters for Phylogenomics and Inferring Pan-Genome Phylogenies, Used for a Critical Geno-Taxonomic Revision of the Genus Stenotrophomonas



ORIGINAL RESEARCH published: 01 May 2018 doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2018.00771



GET_PHYLOMARKERS, a Software Package to Select Optimal Orthologous Clusters for Phylogenomics and Inferring Pan-Genome Phylogenies, Used for a Critical Geno-Taxonomic Revision of the Genus Stenotrophomonas

OPEN ACCESS

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Specialty section:

This article was submitted to Evolutionary and Genomic Microbiology, a section of the journal Frontiers in Microbiology

Received: 16 January 2018 Accepted: 05 April 2018 Published: 01 May 2018

Citation:

Vinuesa P, Ochoa-Sánchez LE and Contreras-Moreira B (2018)
GET_PHYLOMARKERS, a Software Package to Select Optimal Orthologous Clusters for Phylogenomics and Inferring Pan-Genome Phylogenies, Used for a Critical Geno-Taxonomic Revision of the Genus Stenotrophomonas. Front. Microbiol. 9:771.

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The massive accumulation of genome-sequences in public databases promoted the proliferation of genome-level phylogenetic analyses in many areas of biological research. However, due to diverse evolutionary and genetic processes, many loci have undesirable properties for phylogenetic reconstruction. These, if undetected, can result in erroneous or biased estimates, particularly when estimating species trees from concatenated datasets. To deal with these problems, we developed GET_PHYLOMARKERS, a pipeline designed to identify high-quality markers to estimate robust genome phylogenies from the orthologous clusters, or the pan-genome matrix (PGM), computed by GET_HOMOLOGUES. In the first context, a set of sequential filters are applied to exclude recombinant alignments and those producing anomalous or poorly resolved trees. Multiple sequence alignments and maximum likelihood (ML) phylogenies are computed in parallel on multi-core computers. A ML species tree is estimated from the concatenated set of top-ranking alignments at the DNA or protein levels, using either FastTree or IQ-TREE (IQT). The latter is used by default due to its superior performance revealed in an extensive benchmark analysis. In addition, parsimony and ML phylogenies can be estimated from the PGM. We demonstrate the practical utility of the software by analyzing 170 Stenotrophomonas genome sequences available in RefSeq and 10 new complete genomes of Mexican environmental S. maltophilia complex (Smc) isolates reported herein. A combination of core-genome and PGM analyses was used to revise the molecular systematics of the genus. An unsupervised learning approach that uses a goodness of clustering statistic identified 20 groups within the Smc at a core-genome average nucleotide identity (cgANIb) of 95.9% that are perfectly consistent with strongly supported clades on the core- and pan-genome trees. In addition, we identified 16 misclassified RefSeq genome sequences, 14 of them labeled as S. maltophilia, demonstrating

121

the broad utility of the software for phylogenomics and geno-taxonomic studies. The code, a detailed manual and tutorials are freely available for Linux/UNIX servers under the GNU GPLv3 license at https://github.com/vinuesa/get_phylomarkers. A docker image bundling GET_PHYLOMARKERS with GET_HOMOLOGUES is available at https://hub.docker.com/r/csicunam/get_homologues/, which can be easily run on any platform.

Keywords: phylogenetics, genome-phylogeny, maximum-likelihood, species-tree, species delimitation, Stenotrophomonas maltophilia complex. Mexico

INTRODUCTION

Accurate phylogenies represent key models of descent in modern biological research. They are applied to the study of a broad spectrum of evolutionary topics, ranging from the analysis of populations up to the ecology of communities (Dornburg et al., 2017). The way microbiologists describe and delimit species is undergoing a major revision in the light of genomics (Vandamme and Peeters, 2014; Rosselló-Móra and Amann, 2015), as reflected in the emerging field of microbial genomic taxonomy (Konstantinidis and Tiedje, 2007; Thompson et al., 2009, 2013). Current geno-taxonomic practice is largely based on the estimation of (core-)genome phylogenies (Daubin et al., 2002; Lerat et al., 2003; Tettelin et al., 2005; Ciccarelli et al., 2006; Wu and Eisen, 2008) and the computation of diverse overall genome relatedness indices (OGRIs) (Chun and Rainey, 2014), such as the popular genomic average nucleotide identity (gANI) values (Konstantinidis and Tiedje, 2005; Goris et al., 2007; Richter and Rosselló-Móra, 2009). These indices are rapidly and effectively replacing the traditional DNA-DNA hybridization values used for species delimitation in the pre-genomic era (Stackebrandt and Goebel, 1994; Vandamme et al., 1996; Stackebrandt et al., 2002).

The ever-increasing volume of genome sequences accumulating in public sequence repositories provides a huge volume of data for phylogenetic analysis. This significantly improves our capacity to understand the evolution of species and any associated traits (Dornburg et al., 2017). However, due to diverse evolutionary forces and processes, many loci in genomes have undesirable properties for phylogenetic reconstruction. If undetected, these can lead to erroneous or biased estimates (Shen et al., 2017; Parks et al., 2018), although, ironically, with strong branch support (Kumar et al., 2012). Their impact is particularly strong in concatenated datasets (Kubatko and Degnan, 2007; Degnan and Rosenberg, 2009), which are standard in microbial phylogenomics (Wu and Eisen, 2008). Hence, robust phylogenomic inference requires the selection of well-suited markers for the task (Vinuesa, 2010).

For this study we developed GET_PHYLOMARKERS, an open-source and easy-to-use software package designed with the aim of inferring robust genome-level phylogenies and providing tools for microbial genome taxonomy. We describe the implementation details of the pipeline and how it integrates with GET_HOMOLOGUES (Contreras-Moreira and Vinuesa, 2013; Vinuesa and Contreras-Moreira, 2015). The latter is a popular and versatile genome-analysis software package designed to identify robust clusters of homologous sequences. It has

been widely used in microbial pan-genomics and comparative genomics (Lira et al., 2017; Nourdin-Galindo et al., 2017; Savory et al., 2017; Sandner-Miranda et al., 2018), including recent bacterial geno-taxonomic (Gauthier et al., 2017; Gomila et al., 2017), and plant pan-genomic studies (Contreras-Moreira et al., 2017; Gordon et al., 2017). Regularly updated auxiliary scripts bundled in the GET HOMOLOGUES package compute diverse OGRIs, at the protein, CDS and transcript levels, provide graphical and statistical tools for a range of pan-genome analyses, including inference of pan-genome phylogenies under the parsimony criterion. GET_PHYLOMARKERS was designed to work both at the core-genome and pan-genome levels, using either the homologous gene clusters or the pan-genome matrix (PGM) computed by GET_HOMOLOGUES. In the first context, it identifies single-copy orthologous gene families with optimal attributes (listed further down) and concatenates them to estimate a genomic species tree. In the second scenario, it uses the PGM to estimate phylogenies under the maximum likelihood (ML) or parsimony optimality criteria. In addition, we implemented unsupervised learning methods that automatically identify species-like genome clusters based on the statistical analysis of the PGM and core-genome average nucleotide identity matrices (cgANIb).

To demonstrate these capabilities and benchmark performance, we applied the pipeline to critically evaluate the molecular systematics and taxonomy of the genus *Stenotrophomonas*. Species delimitation is problematic and far from resolved in this genus (Ochoa-Sánchez and Vinuesa, 2017), despite recent efforts using genomic approaches with a limited number of genome sequences (Patil et al., 2016; Yu et al., 2016; Lira et al., 2017).

The genus Stenotrophomonas (Gammaproteobacteria, Xhanthomonadales, Xanthomonadaceae) (Palleroni and Bradbury, 1993; Palleroni, 2005) groups ubiquitous, aerobic, non-fermenting bacteria that thrive in diverse aquatic and edaphic habitats, including human-impacted ecosystems (Ryan et al., 2009). As of March 2018, 14 validly described species were listed in Jean Euzeby's list of prokaryotic names with standing in nomenclature (http://www.bacterio.net/stenotrophomonas. html). By far, its best-known species is S. maltophilia. It is considered a globally emerging, multidrug-resistant (MDR) and opportunistic pathogen (Brooke, 2012; Chang et al., 2015). S. maltophilia-like organisms display high genetic, ecological and phenotypic diversity (Valdezate et al., 2004; Vasileuskaya-Schulz et al., 2011), forming the so-called S. maltophilia complex (Smc) (Svensson-Stadler et al., 2012; Berg

and Martinez, 2015). Heterogeneous resistance and virulence phenotypes have been reported for environmental isolates of diverse ecological origin classified as S. maltophilia (Adamek et al., 2011; Deredjian et al., 2016). We have recently shown that this phenotypic heterogeneity largely results from problems in species delimitations within the Smc (Ochoa-Sánchez and Vinuesa, 2017). We analyzed the genetic diversity of a collection of 108 Stenotrophomonas isolates recovered from several water bodies in Morelos, Central Mexico, based on sequence data generated for the 7 loci used in the Multilocus Sequence Typing (MLST) scheme available for S. maltophilia at https://pubmlst. org. We assembled a large set of reference sequences retrieved from the MLST database (Kaiser et al., 2009; Vasileuskaya-Schulz et al., 2011) and from selected genome sequences (Crossman et al., 2008; Lira et al., 2012; Davenport et al., 2014; Vinuesa and Ochoa-Sánchez, 2015; Patil et al., 2016), encompassing 11 out of the 12 validly described species at the time. State-of-the-art phylogenetic and population genetics methods, including the multispecies coalescent model coupled with Bayes factor analysis and Bayesian clustering of the multilocus genotypes consistently resolved five conservatively-defined genospecies within the Smc clade, which were named S. maltophilia and Smc1-Smc4. The approach also delimited Smc5 as a sister clade of S. rhizophila. Importantly, we showed that (i) only members of the Smc clade that we designed as S. maltophilia were truly MDR and (ii) that S. maltophilia was the only species that consistently expressed metallo-beta-lactamases (Ochoa-Sánchez and Vinuesa, 2017). Strains of the genospecies Smc1 and Smc2 were only recovered from the Mexican rivers and displayed significantly lower resistance levels than sympatric S. maltophilia isolates, revealing well-defined species-specific phenotypes.

Given this context, the present study was designed with two major goals. The first one was to develop GET_PHYLOMARKERS, a pipeline for the automatic and robust estimation of genome phylogenies using state-of-the art methods. The emphasis of the pipeline is on selecting top-ranking markers for the task, based on the following quantitative/statistical criteria: (i) they should not present signs of recombination, (ii) the resulting gene trees should not be anomalous or deviating from the distribution of tree topologies and branch lengths expected under the multispecies coalescent model, and (iii) they should have a strong phylogenetic signal. The top-scoring markers are concatenated to estimate the species phylogeny under the ML optimality criterion using either FastTree (Price et al., 2010) or IQ-TREE (IQT) (Nguyen et al., 2015). The second aim was to apply GET_PHYLOMARKERS to challenge and refine the species delimitations reported in our previous MLSA study (Ochoa-Sánchez and Vinuesa, 2017) using a genomic approach, focusing on resolving the geno-taxonomic structure of the Smc and S. maltophilia sensu lato clades. For this purpose we sequenced five strains from the new genospecies Smc1 and Smc2 and analyzed them together with all reference genome sequences available for the genus Stenotrophomonas as of August 2017 using the methods implemented in GET_PHYLOMARKERS. The results were used to critically revise the molecular systematics of the genus in light of genomics, identify misclassified genome sequences, suggest

correct classifications for them and discover multiple novel genospecies within *S. maltophilia*.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Genome Sequencing, Assembly, and Annotation

Ten Stenotrophomonas strains from our collection were selected (Table 1) for genome sequencing using a MiSeq instrument $(2 \times 300 \text{ bp})$ at the Genomics Core Sequencing Service provided by Arizona State University (DNASU). They were all isolated from rivers in the state of Morelos, Central Mexico, and classified as genospecies 1 (Smc1) or 2 (Smc2), as detailed in a previous publication (Ochoa-Sánchez and Vinuesa, 2017). Adaptors at the 5'-ends and low quality residues at the 3' ends of reads were trimmed-off using ngsShoRT v2.1 (Chen et al., 2014) and passed to Spades v3.10.1 (Bankevich et al., 2012) for assembly (with options -careful -k 33,55,77,99,127,151). The resulting assembly scaffolds were filtered to remove those with low coverage (<7X) and short length (< 500 nt). All complete genome sequences available in RefSeq for Stenotrophomonas spp. were used as references for automated ordering of assembly scaffolds using MeDuSa v1.6 (Bosi et al., 2015). A final assembly polishing step was performed by remapping the quality-filtered sequence reads on the ordered scaffolds using BWA (Li and Durbin, 2009) and passing the resulting sorted binary alignments to SAMtools (Li et al., 2009) for indexing. The indexed alignments were used by Pilon 1.21 (Walker et al., 2014) for gap closure and filling, correction of indels and single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), as previously described (Vinuesa and Ochoa-Sánchez, 2015). The polished assemblies were annotated with NCBI's Prokaryotic Genome Annotation Pipeline (PGAP v4.2) (Angiuoli et al., 2008). BioProject and BioSample accession numbers are provided in Table S1.

Reference Genomes

On August 1st, 2017, a total of 169 annotated *Stenotrophomonas* genome sequences were available in RefSeq, 134 of which were labeled as *S. maltophilia*. The corresponding GenBank files were retrieved, as well as the corresponding table with assembly metadata. Seven complete *Xanthomonas* spp. genomes were also downloaded to use them as outgroup sequences. In January 2018, the genome sequence of *S. bentonitica* strain VV6 was added to RefSeq and included in the revised version of this work to increase the taxon sampling.

Computing Consensus Core- and Pan-Genomes With GET_HOMOLOGUES

We used GET_HOMOLOGUES (v05022018) (Contreras-Moreira and Vinuesa, 2013) to compute clusters of homologous gene families from the input genome sequences, as previously detailed (Vinuesa and Contreras-Moreira, 2015). Briefly, the source GenBank-formatted files were passed to get_homologues.pl and instructed to compute homologous gene clusters by running either our heuristic (fast) implementation of the bidirectional best-hit (BDBH) algorithm ("-b") to explore the complete dataset, or the full BDBH, Clusters of Orthologous

TABLE 1 Overview of key annotation features for the 10 new genome assemblies reported in this study for environmental isolates recovered from Mexican rivers and classified as genospecies 1 (Smc1) and 2 (Smc2) in the study of Ochoa-Sánchez and Vinuesa (2017).

| Genome | Size_nt | CDSs (coding) | rRNAs | tRNAs | Pseudo-genes | RefSeq Acc. num. |
|--|-----------|---------------|-------|-------|--------------|------------------|
| Stenotrophomonas genospecies 1 (Smc1; Sgn1) ESTM1D MKCIP4 1 | 4,475,880 | 3,904 | 6 | 59 | 67 | CP026004 |
| Stenotrophomonas genospecies 1 (Smc1; Sgn1) SAU14A NAIMI4 5 | 4,570,883 | 4,020 | 6 | 69 | 66 | CP026003 |
| Stenotrophomonas genospecies 1 (Smc1; Sgn1) ZAC14A NAIMI4 1 | 4,698,328 | 4,150 | 7 | 45 | 66 | CP026002 |
| Stenotrophomonas genospecies 1 (Smc1; Sgn1) ZAC14D1 NAIMI4 1 | 4,702,461 | 4,131 | 6 | 42 | 66 | CP026001 |
| Stenotrophomonas genospecies 1 (Smc1; Sgn1) ZAC14D1 NAIMI4 6 | 4,700,343 | 4,128 | 6 | 45 | 63 | CP026000 |
| Stenotrophomonas genospecies 2 (Smc2; Sgn2) SAU14A NAIMI4 8 | 4,479,100 | 3,893 | 5 | 54 | 69 | CP025999 |
| Stenotrophomonas genospecies 2 (Smc2; Sgn2) YAU14A MKIMI4 1 | 4,487,007 | 3,918 | 7 | 43 | 67 | CP025998 |
| Stenotrophomonas genospecies 2 (Smc2; Sgn2) YAU14D1 LEIMI4 1 | 4,319,112 | 3,819 | 6 | 51 | 66 | CP025997 |
| Stenotrophomonas genospecies 2 (Smc2; Sgn2) ZAC14D2 NAIMI4 6 | 4,431,104 | 3,882 | 6 | 52 | 66 | CP025996 |
| Stenotrophomonas genospecies 2 (Smc2; Sgn2) ZAC14D2 NAIMI4 7 | 4,468,731 | 3,918 | 6 | 66 | 62 | CP025995 |
| | | | | | | |

Details of their isolation sites and antimicrobial resistance phenotypes can be found therein. All genomes consist of a single gapped chromosome. Table S1 provides additional information of the assemblies. Their phylogenetic placement within the Stenotrophomonas maltophilia complex is shown in **Figure 5** (clades Sgn1/Smc1 and Sgn2/Smc2).

Groups—triangles (COGtriangles), and OrthoMCL (Markov Clustering of orthologs, OMCL) algorithms for the different sets of selected genomes, as detailed in the relevant sections and explained in the GET_HOMOLOGUES's online manual (eead-csic-compbio.github.io/get_homologues/manual/manual.html). PFAM-domain scanning was enabled for the latter runs (-D flag). BLASTP hits were filtered by imposing a minimum of 90% alignment coverage (-C 90). The directories holding the results from the different runs were then passed to the auxiliary script compare_clusters.pl to compute either the consensus core genome (-t number_of_genomes) or pan-genome clusters (-t 0). The commands to achieve this can be found in the online tutorial https://vinuesa.github.io/get_phylomarkers/#get_homologues-get_phylomarkers-tutorials provided with the distribution.

Overview of the Computational Steps Performed by the GET_PHYLOMARKERS Pipeline

Figure 1 presents a flow-chart that summarizes the computational steps performed by the pipeline, which are briefly described below. For an in-depth description of each step and associated parameters, as well as for a full version of the pipeline's flow-chart, the reader is referred to the online manual $(https://vinuesa.github.io/get_phylomarkers/). \ \ The \ \ pipeline \ \ is$ primarily intended to run DNA-based phylogenies ("-R 1 -t DNA") on a collection of genomes from different species of the same genus or family. However, it can also select optimal markers for population genetics ("-R 2 -t DNA"), when the source genomes belong to the same species (not shown here). For more divergent genomes, the pipeline should be run using protein sequences ("-R 1 -t PROT"). The analyses are started from the directory holding single-copy core-genome clusters generated either by "get_homologues.pl -e -t number_of_genomes" or by "compare_clusters.pl -t number_of_genomes." Note that both the protein (faa) and nucleotide (fna) FASTA files for the clusters are required, as detailed in the online tutorial (https:// vinuesa.github.io/get_phylomarkers/#get_homologues-get_

phylomarkers-tutorials). The former are first aligned with clustal-omega (Sievers et al., 2012) and then used by pal2nal (Suyama et al., 2006) to generate codon alignments. These are subsequently scanned with the Phi-test (Bruen et al., 2005) to identify and discard those with significant evidence for recombinant sequences. Maximum-likelihood phylogenies are inferred for each of the non-recombinant alignments using by default IQT v.1.6.3 (Nguyen et al., 2015), which will perform model selection with ModelFinder (Kalyaanamoorthy et al., 2017) and the "-fast" flag enabled for rapid computation, as detailed in the online manual. Alternatively, FastTree v2.1.10 (Price et al., 2010) can be executed using the "-A F" option, which will estimate phylogenies under the GTR+Gamma model. FastTree was compiled with double-precision enabled for maximum accuracy (see the manual for details). The resulting gene trees are screened to detect "outliers" with help of the R package kdetrees (v.0.1.5) (Weyenberg et al., 2014, 2017). It implements a non-parametric test based on the distribution of tree topologies and branch lengths expected under the multispecies coalescent, identifying those phylogenies with unusual topologies or branch lengths. The stringency of the test can be controlled with the -k parameter (inter-quartile range multiplier for outlier detection, by default set to the standard 1.5). In a third step, the phylogenetic signal of each gene-tree is computed based on mean branch support values (Vinuesa et al., 2008), keeping only those above a user-defined mean Shimodaira-Hasegawa-like (SH-alrt) bipartition support (Anisimova and Gascuel, 2006) threshold ("-m 0.75" by default). To make all the previous steps as fast as possible, they are run in parallel on multi-core machines using GNU parallel (Tange, 2011). The set of alignments passing all filters are concatenated and subjected to maximum-likelihood (ML) tree searching, using by default IQT with model fitting, to estimate the genomic

The complete GET_PHYLOMARKERS pipeline is launched with the master script run_get_phylomarkers_pipeline.sh, which calls a subset of auxiliary Bash, Perl and R programs to perform specific tasks. This architecture allows the user to run the

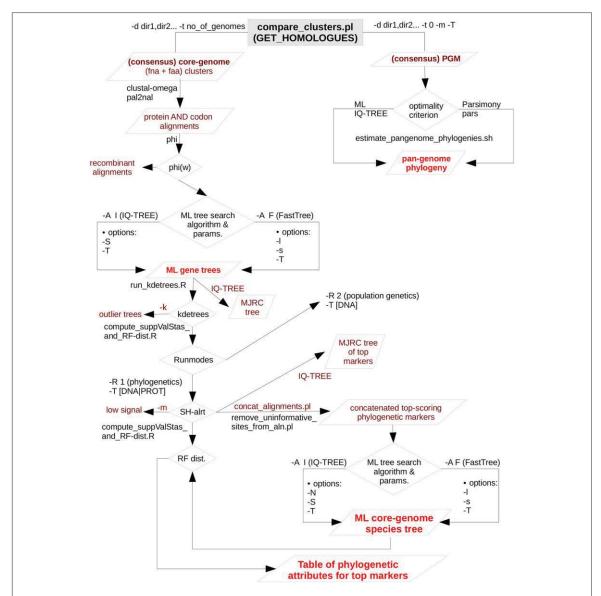


FIGURE 1 | Simplified flow-chart of the GET_PHYLOMARKERS pipeline showing only those parts used and described in this work. The left branch, starting at the top of the diagram, is fully under control of the master script run_get_phylomarkes_pipeline.sh. The names of the worker scripts called by the master program are indicated on the relevant points along the flow. Steps involving repetitive computational processes, like generating multiple sequence alignments or inferring the corresponding gene trees, are run in parallel with the aid of GNU parallel, which is called from run_parallel_cmmds.pl. The right-hand branch, at the top of the diagram, summarizes the analyses that can be performed on the pan-genome matrix (PGM). In this work we only present the estimation of maximum-likelihood and parsimony pan-genome phylogenies. However, unsupervised learning approaches are provided by the hcluster_pangenome_matrix.sh script (not shown) for statistical analysis of the PGM. In addition, the plot_matrix_heatmap.sh script was used to analyze average nucleotide identity matrices generated by get_homologues.pl. It implements the unsupervised learning method described in this work to define the optimal number of clusters in such matrices. The plot_matrix_heatmap.sh script is distributed with the GET_HOMOLOGUES suite.

individual steps separately, which adds convenient flexibility for advanced users (examples provided in the Supplementary Materials). The pipeline is highly customizable, and the reader is referred to the latest version of the online manual for the details of each option. However, the default values should produce satisfactory results for most purposes, as these were carefully selected based on the benchmark analysis presented in this work. All the source code is freely available under the GNU GENERAL PUBLIC LICENSE V3 from https://github.com/ vinuesa/get_phylomarkers. Detailed installation instructions are provided (https://github.com/vinuesa/get_phylomarkers/ blob/master/INSTALL.md), along with a hands-on tutorial (https://vinuesa.github.io/get_phylomarkers/). The software has been extensively tested on diverse Linux distributions (CentOS, Ubuntu and RedHat). In addition, a docker image bundling GET_HOMOLOGUES and GET_PHYLOMARKERS is available at https://hub.docker.com/r/csicunam/get_homologues/. We recommend running the docker image to avoid potential trouble with the installation and configuration of diverse dependencies (second party binaries, as well as Perl and R packages), making it easy to install on any architecture, including Windows, and to reproduce analyses with exactly the same software.

Estimating Maximum Likelihood and Parsimony Pan-Genome Trees From the Pan-Genome Matrix (PGM)

The GET_PHYLOMARKERS package contains auxiliary scripts to perform diverse clustering and phylogenetic analyses based on the pangenome_matrix_t0.* files returned by the compare_clusters.pl script (options "-t 0 -m") from the GET_HOMOLOGUES suite. In this work, consensus PGMs (Vinuesa and Contreras-Moreira, 2015) were computed as explained in the online tutorial (https://vinuesa.github.io/get_ $phylomarkers/\#get_homologues-get_phylomarkers-tutorials).$ These represent the intersection of the clusters generated by the COGtriangles and OMCL algorithms. Adding the -T flag to the previous command instructs compare_clusters.pl to compute a Wagner (multistate) parsimony tree from the PGM, launching a tree search with 50 taxon jumbles using pars from the PHYLIP (Felsenstein, 2004b) package (v.3.69). A more thorough and customized ML or parsimony analysis of the PGM can be performed with the aid of the auxiliary script estimate_pangenome_phylogenies.sh, bundled with GET_PHYLOMARKERS. By default this script performs a ML tree-search using IQT v1.6.3 (Nguyen et al., 2015). It will first call ModelFinder (Kalyaanamoorthy et al., 2017) using the JC2 and GTR2 base models for binary data, the latter accounting for unequal state frequencies. The best fitting base model + ascertain bias correction + among-site rate variation parameters are selected using the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC). IQT (Nguyen et al., 2015) is then called to perform a ML tree search under the selected model with branch support estimation. These are estimated using approximate Bayesian posterior probabilities (aBypp), a popular single branch test (Guindon et al., 2010), as well as the recently developed ultrafast-bootstrap2 (UFBoot2) test (Hoang et al., 2017). In addition, the user may choose to run a parsimony analysis with bootstrapping on the PGM, as detailed in the online manual and illustrated in the tutorial. Note however, that the parsimony search with bootstrapping is much slower than the default ML search.

Unsupervised Learning Methods for the Analysis of Pairwise Average Nucleotide (ANI) and Aminoacid (AAI) Identity Matrices

GET_HOMOLOGUES distribution contains plot_matrix_heatmap.sh script which generates ordered heatmaps with attached row and column dendrograms from squared tab-separated numeric matrices. These can be presence/absence PGM matrices or similarity/identity matrices, as those produced with the get_homologues -A option. Optionally, the input cgANIb matrix can be converted to a distance matrix to compute a neighbor joining tree, which makes the visualization of relationships in large ANI matrices easier. Recently added functionality includes reducing excessive redundancy in the tab-delimited ANI matrix file (-c max_identity_cut-off_value) and sub-setting the matrix with regular expressions, to focus the analysis on particular genomes extracted from the full cgANIb matrix. From version 1.0 onwards, the mean silhouette-width (Rousseeuw, 1987) goodness of clustering statistics is included to determine the optimal number of clusters automatically. The script currently depends on the R packages ape (Popescu et al., 2012), dendextend (https://cran.r-project.org/package=dendextend), factoextra (https://cran.r-project.org/package=factoextra) and gplots (https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=gplots).

RESULTS

Ten New Complete Genome Assemblies for the Mexican Environmental Stenotrophomonas maltophilia Complex Isolates Previously Classified as Genospecies 1 (Smc1) and 2 (Smc2)

In this study we report the sequencing and assembly of five isolates each from the genospecies 1 (Smc1) and 2 (Smc2) recovered from rivers in Central Mexico, previously reported in our extensive MLSA study of the genus *Stenotrophomonas* (Ochoa-Sánchez and Vinuesa, 2017). All assemblies resulted in a single chromosome with gaps. No plasmids were detected. A summary of the annotated features for each genome are presented in **Table 1**. Assembly details are provided in Table S1.

Rapid Phylogenetic Exploration of Stenotrophomonas Genome Sequences Available at NCBI's RefSeq Repository Running GET_PHYLOMARKERS in Fast Runmode

A total of 170 *Stenotrophomonas* and 7 *Xanthomonas* reference genomes were retrieved from RefSeq (see methods). **Figure 2A** depicts parallel density plots showing the distribution of the number of fragments for the *Stenotrophomonas* assemblies at the Complete (n=16), Chromosome (n=3), Scaffold (n=63), and Contig (n=88) finishing levels. The distributions have conspicuous long tails, with an overall mean and median number of fragments of \sim 238 and \sim 163, respectively. The table insets in **Figure 2A** provide additional descriptive statistics of the

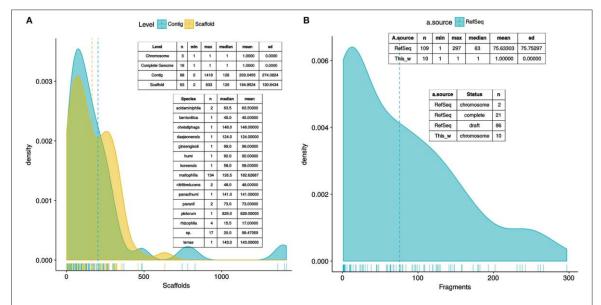


FIGURE 2 | Density plots showing the distribution of the number of fragments of the Stenotrophomonas genomes available in RefSeq as of August 2017, plus the genome of S. bentonitica VV6, released in January 2018. (A) Distribution of the number of fragments in the assemblies of 170 annotated Stenotrophomonas genomes, as a function of assembly status (contigs vs. scaffolds), plus 7 Xanthomonas genomes used as outgroup to root the tree. Inset tables provide additional summary statistics of the RefSeq assemblies. (B) Distribution of the number of fragments in the assemblies of the 119 genomes selected for the analyses presented in this study, which include 102 reference Stenotrophomonas genomes, 10 new genomes generated for this study, and 7 complete Xanthomonas spp. genomes.

distributions. A first GET_HOMOLOGUES run was launched using this dataset (n = 177) with two objectives: (i) to test its performance with a relatively large set of genomes and (ii) to get an overview of their evolutionary relationships to select a nonredundant set of those with the best assemblies. For this analysis, GET HOMOLOGUES was run in its "fast-BDBH" mode (-b), on 60 cores (-n 60; AMD OpteronTM Processor 6380, 2500.155 MHz), and imposing a stringent 90% coverage cut-off for BLASTP alignments (-C 90), excluding inparalogues (-e). This analysis took 1 h:32 m:13 s to complete and identified 132 core genes. These were fed into the GET_PHYLOMARKERS pipeline, which was executed using a default FastTree search with the following command line: "run_get_phylomarkers_pipeline.sh -R 1 -t DNA -A F," which took 8 m:1s to complete on the same number of cores. Only 79 alignments passed the Phi recombination test. Thirteen of them failed to pass the downstream kdetree test. The phylogenetic signal test excluded nine additional loci with average SH-alrt values < 0.70. Only 57 alignments passed all filters and were concatenated into a supermatrix of 38,415 aligned residues, which were collapsed to 19,129 non-gapped and variable sites. A standard FastTree maximum-likelihood tree-search was launched, and the resulting phylogeny ($\ln L = -475237.540$) is shown in Figure S1. Based on this tree and the level of assembly completeness for each genome (Figure 2A), we decided to discard those with >300 contigs (Figure 2B). This resulted in the loss of 19 genomes labeled as S. maltophilia. However, we retained S. pictorum JCM 9942, a highly fragmented genome with 829 contigs (Patil et al., 2016) to maximize taxon sampling. Several S. maltophilia subclades contained identical sequences (Figure S1) and were trimmed, retaining only the assembly with the lowest numbers of scaffolds or contigs.

Selection of a Stringently Defined Set of Orthologous Genes Using GET HOMOLOGUES

After the quality and redundancy filtering described in the previous section, 109 reference genomes (102 Stenotrophomonas + 7 Xanthomonas) were retained for more detailed investigation. Table S2 provides an overview of them. To this set we added the 10 new genomes reported in this study (Table 1). Figure 2B depicts a density plot and two inset tables summarizing the distribution of number of contigs/scaffolds in the selected reference genomes and the new genomes for the Mexican environmental Smc isolates previously classified as genospecies 1 (Smc1) and 2 (Smc2) (Ochoa-Sánchez and Vinuesa, 2017). A high stringency consensus core-genome containing 239 gene families was computed as the intersection of the clusters generated by the BDBH, COG-triangles and OMCL algorithms (Figure 3A).

GET_PHYLOMARKERS in Action: Benchmarking the Performance of FastTree and IQ-Tree to Select Top-Scoring Markers for Phylogenomics

The set of 239 consensus core-genome clusters (Figure 3A) was used to launch multiple instances of the GET_PHYLOMARKERS pipeline to evaluate the phylogenetic

127

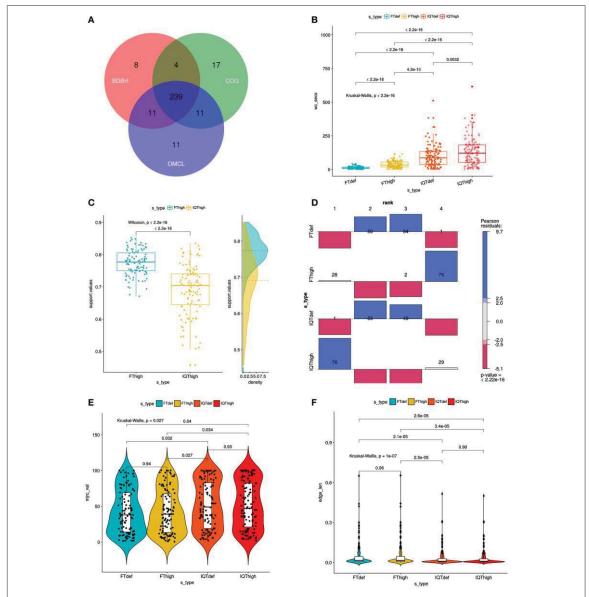


FIGURE 3 | Combined filtering actions performed by GET_HOMOLOGUES and GET_PHYLOMARKERS to select top-ranking phylogenetic markers to be concatenated for phylogenomic analyses, and benchmark results of the performance of the FastTree (FT) and IQ-TREE (IQT) maximum-likelihood (ML) phylogeny inference programs. (A) Venn-diagram indicating the number consensus and algorithm-specific core-genome orthologous clusters. (B) Parallel box-plots summarizing the computation time required by FT and IQT when run under "default" (FTdef, IQTdef) and thorough (FThigh, IQThigh) search modes (s_type) on the 239 consensus clusters, as detailed in the main text. Statistical significance of differences between treatments were computed with the Kruskal-Wallis (robust, non-parametric, ANOVA-like) test. (C) Distribution of SH-alrt branch support values of gene-trees found by the FThigh and IQThigh searches. Statistical significance of differences between the paired samples was computed with the Wilcoxon signed-rank test. This is a non-parametric alternative to paired t-test used to compare paired data when they are not normally distributed. (D) Association plot (computed with the vcd package) summarizing the results of multi-way Chi-Square analyses of the InL score ranks (1–4, meaning best to worst) of the ML gene-trees computed from the set of 105 codon alignments passing the kdetrees filter in the IQThigh run (Table 2) for each search-type. The height and color-shading of the bars indicate the magnitude and significance level of the Pearson residuals. (E) Statistical analysis (Kruskal-Wallis test) of the distribution of consensus values from majority-rule consensus trees computed from the gene trees passing all the filters, as a function of search-type. (F) Statistical analysis (Kruskal-Wallis test) of the distribution of the edge-lengths of species-trees computed from the concatenated top-scoring markers, as a function of search-type.

TABLE 2 | Comparative benchmark analysis of the filtering performance of the GET_PHYLOMARKERS pipeline when run using the FastTree (FT) and IQ-TREE (IQT) maximum-likelihood algorithms, under default and high search-intensity levels.

| Test | FTdef | FThigh | IQTdef | IQThigh |
|---|--|--|---|---|
| Alignments passing the Phi recombination test | 127/239 (53.14%) | 125/239 (52.30%) | 125/239 (52.30%) | 127/239 (53.14%) |
| Outlier phylogenies (kdetrees test; $k = 1.0$) out of the indicated number of non-recombinant alignments | 22/127 (17.32%) passing: 105 | 18 (14.17%) passing: 107 | 19 (14.96%) passing: 106 | 22 (17.32%) passing: 105 |
| Alignments passing the phylogenetic signal mean SH-airt bipartition support; $m \ge 0.7$) test | 98/105 (93.33%) | 99/107 (92.52%) | 52/106 (49.05%) | 55/105 (52.38%) |
| Concatenated top-scoring markers, InL score, substitution model and number of independent | 98 markers var. sites = 36,082 | 99 markers var. sites = $35,509$ | 52 markers var. sites = $25,383$ | 55 markers var. sites = 26,988 |
| searches | InL = -917444.522 GTR+G Searches = 1 | InL = -899898.614 GTR+G Searches = 1 | lnL = -666437.563 GTR+F+ASC+R6 Searches = 1 | lnL = -707933.476 GTR+F+ASC+R6 Searches = 5 |
| Total wall-clock time of runs on 50 cores | 0 h:13 m:39 s | 0 h:38 m:30 s | 1 h:22 m:18 s | 2 h:40 m:13 s |

The analyses were started with the stringently defined set of 239 consensus core-genome clusters computed by GET_HOMOLOGUES for a dataset of 119 genomes (112 Stenotrophomonas spp. and 7 Xanthomonas spp.).

performance of FastTree (FT; v2.1.10) and IQ-TREE (IQT; v1.6.3), two popular fast maximum-likelihood (ML) tree searching algorithms. Our benchmark was designed to compare: (i) the execution times of the FT vs. IQT runs under default (FTdef, IQTdef) and thorough (FThigh, IQThigh) search modes (see methods and online manual for their parameterization details); (ii) the phylogenetic resolution (average support values) of gene trees estimated by FT and IQT under both search modes; (iii) the rank of lnL scores of the gene trees found in those searches for each locus; (iv) the distribution of consensus values of each node in majority rule consensus trees computed from the gene trees found by each search type; (v) the distribution of edge-lengths in the species-trees computed by each search type. The results of these analyses are summarized in Table 2 and in Figure 3. The first steps of the pipeline (Figure 1) comprise the generation of codon alignments and their analysis to identify potential recombination events. Only 127 alignments (53.14%) passed the Phi-test (Table 2). Phylogenetic analyses start downstream of the recombination test (Figure 1). The computation times required by the two algorithms and search intensity levels were significantly different (Kruskal-Wallis, p < 2.2e-16), FastTree being always the fastest, and displaying the lowest dispersion of compute times across trees (Figure 3B). This is not surprising, as IQT searches involved selecting the best substitution model among a range of base models (see methods and online manual) and fitting additional parameters (+G+ASC+I+F+R) to account for heterogeneous base frequencies and rate-variation across sites. In contrast, FT searches just estimated the parameter values for the general time-reversible (GTR) model, and among-site rate variation was modeled fitting a gamma distribution with 20 rate categories (+G), as summarized in Table 2. Similar numbers of "outlier" trees (range 18:22) were detected by the kdetrees-test in the four search types (Table 2). However, the distributions of SH-alrt support values are strikingly different for both search algorithms (Wilcoxon, p < 2.2e-16), revealing that gene-trees found by IQT have a much lower average support than those found by FT (Figure 3C). Consequently, the former searches

were significantly more efficient to identify gene trees with low average branch support values (Table 2 and Figure 3C). This result is in line with the well-established fact that poorly fitting and under-parameterized models produce less reliable tree branch lengths and overestimate branch support (Posada and Buckley, 2004), implying that the FT phylogenies may suffer from clade over-credibility. These results demonstrate that: (i) FT-based searches are significantly faster than those performed with IQT, and (ii) that IQT has a significantly higher discrimination power for phylogenetic signal than FT. Due to the fact that the number of top-scoring alignments selected by the two algorithms for concatenation is notably different (Table 2), the lnL scores of the resulting species-trees are not comparable (Table 2). Therefore, in order to further evaluate the quality of the gene-trees found by the four search strategies, we performed an additional benchmark under highly standardized conditions, based on the 105 optimal alignments that passed the kdetrees-test in the IQThigh search (Table 2). Gene trees were estimated for each of these alignments using the four search strategies (FTdef, IQTdef, FThigh, and IQThigh) and their lnL scores ranked for each gene tree. An association analysis (deviation from independence in a multi-way chi-squared test) was performed on the lnL ranks (1-4, coding for highest to lowest lnL scores, respectively) attained by each search type for each gene tree. As shown in Figure 3D, the IQThigh search was the winner, attaining the first rank (highest lnL score) in 76/105 of the searches (72.38%), way ahead of the number of FThigh (26%), and IOTdef (0.009%) searches that ranked in the first position (highest lnL score for a particular alignment). A similar analysis performed on the full set of input alignments (n = 239) indicated that when operating on an unfiltered set, the difference in performance was even more striking, with IQT-based searches occupying > 97% of the first rank positions (data not shown). These results highlight two points: (i) the importance of proper model selection and thorough tree searching in phylogenetic inference and (ii) that IQT generally finds better trees than FT. Finally, we evaluated additional phylogenetic attributes of the species-trees computed by each search type, either as the majority rule consensus (mjrc) tree of top-scoring gene-trees, or as the tree estimated from the supermatrices of concatenated alignments. Figure 3E shows the distribution of mjrc values of the mjrc trees computed by each search type, which can be interpreted as a proxy for the level phylogenetic congruence among the source trees. These values were significantly higher for the IQT than in the FT searches (Kruskal-Wallis, p = 0.027), with a higher number of 100% mjrc clusters found in the former than in the latter type of trees (Figure 3E). An analysis of the distribution of edge-lengths of the species-trees inferred from the concatenated alignments revealed that those found in IQT searches had significantly (Kruskal-Wallis, p = 1e-07) shorter edges (branches) than those estimated by FT (Figure 3F). This highlights again the importance of adequate substitution models for proper edge-length estimation. Tree-lengths (sum of edge lengths) of the species-trees found in IQT-based searches are about 0.63 times shorter than those found by FT (Figure S2). As a final exercise, we computed the Robinson-Foulds (RF) distances of each gene tree found in a given search type to the species tree inferred from the corresponding supermatrix. The most striking result of this analysis was that no single gene-tree had the same topology as the species tree inferred from the concatenated top-scoring alignments (Figure S3).

Effect of Tree-Search Intensity on the Quality of the Species Trees Found by IQT-REE and FastTree

Given the astronomical number of different topologies that exist for 119 terminals, we decided to evaluate the effect of tree-search thoroughness on the quality of the trees found by FT and IQT, measured as their log-likelihood (lnL) score. To make the results comparable across search algorithms, we used the supermatrix of 55 top-scoring markers (25,896 variable, non-gapped sites) selected by the IQThigh run (**Table 2**). One

thousand FT searches were launched from the same number of random topologies computed with the aid of a custom Perl script. In addition, a standard FT search was started from the default BioNJ tree. All these searches were run in "thorough" mode (-quiet -nt -gtr -bionj -slow -slownni -gamma -mlacc 3 spr 16 -sprlength 10) on 50 cores. The resulting lnL profile for this search is presented in Figure 4A, which reached a maximal score of -717195.373. This is $121.281 \ln L$ units better than the score of the best tree found in the search started from the BioNJ seed tree (ln*L* -717316.654, lower discontinuous blue line). In addition, 50 independent tree searches were run with IQT under the best fitting model previously found (Table 2), using the shell loop command (# 5) provided in the Supplementary Material. The corresponding lnL profile of this search is shown in Figure 4B, which found a maximum-scoring tree with a score of -707932.468. This is only $8.105 \, \ln L$ units better than the worst tree found in that same search (Figure 4B). Importantly, the best tree found in the IQT-search is 9262.905 lnL units better that of the best tree found in the FT search, despite the much higher number of seed trees used for the latter. This result clearly demonstrates the superiority of the IQT algorithm for ML tree searching. Based on this evidence, and that presented in the previous section (Table 2; Figure 3), IQT was chosen as the default tree-search algorithm used by GET_PHYLOMARKERS. The Robinson-Foulds distance between both trees was 46.

A Robust Genomic Species Phylogeny for the Genus *Stenotrophomonas*: Taxonomic Implications and Identification of Multiple Misclassified Genomes

Figure 5 displays the best ML phylogeny found in the IQT search (**Figure 4B**) described in the previous section. This is a highly resolved phylogeny. All bipartitions have an approximate

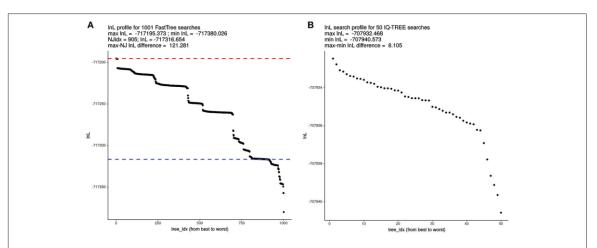


FIGURE 4 | Comparative analysis of log-likelihood tree search profiles. (A) Sorted InL profile of FastTree (FT) tree searches launched from 1,000 random trees + 1 BioNJ phylogeny, using the "thorough" tree-search settings described in the main text and the 55 top-ranking markers (26,988 non-gapped, variable sites) selected by the IQThigh run for 119 genomes (Table 2). The dashed blue line indicates the score of the search initiated from the BioNJ tree. (B) Sorted InL profile of 50 independently launched IQ-TREE (IQT) searches under the best-fitting model using the same matrix as for the FT search.

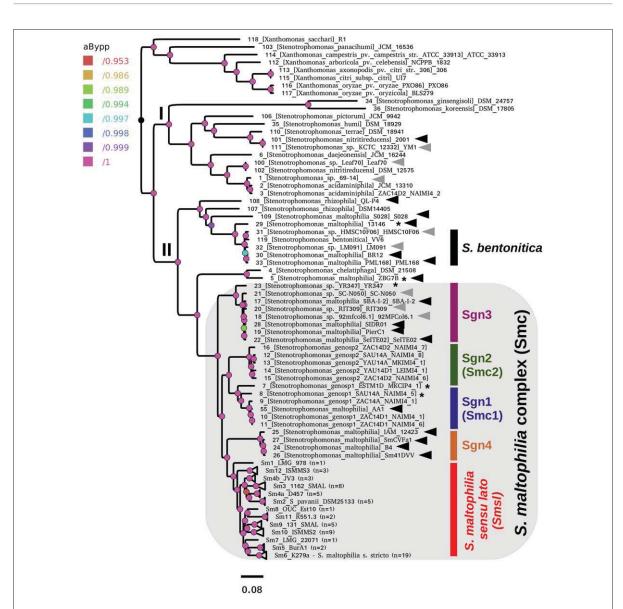


FIGURE 5 | Best maximum-likelihood core-genome phylogeny for the genus Stenotrophomonas found in the IQ-TREE search described in Figure 4B, based on the supermatrix obtained by concatenation of 55 top-ranking alignments (Table 2). The tree was rooted using the Xanthomonas spp. sequences as the outgroup. Arrows highlight genomes not grouping in the S. maltophilia sensu lato clade (Smsl), for which we suggest a reclassification, as summarized in Table 3. Black arrows indicate misclassified strains, while gray ones mark unclassified genomes. The shaded area highlights the strains considered as members of the S. maltophilia complex (Smc). The genospecies 1 and 2 (Sgn1 = Smc1; Sgn2 = Smc2) were previously recognized as separate species-like lineages by Ochoa-Sánchez and Vinuesa (2017). Strains grouped in the Smsl clade are collapsed into sub-clades that are perfectly consistent with the cluster analysis of core-genome average nucleotide identity (cgANIb) values presented in Figure 7 at a cutoff-value of 95.9%. Integers in parentheses correspond to the number of genomes in each collapsed clade. Figure S4 displays the same tree in non-collapsed form. Strains from genospecies 1, 3, and 5 (Sgn1, Sgn3, Sgn5) marked with an asterisk may represent additional species, according to cgANIb values. Nodes are colored according to the lateral scale, which indicates the approximate Bayesian posterior probability values. The scale bar represents the number of expected substitutions per site under the best-fitting GTR+ASC+F+R6 model.

Bayesian posterior probability (aBypp) $p \ge 0.95$. It was rooted at the branch subtending the *Xanthomonas* spp. clade, used as an outgroup. A first taxonomic inconsistency revealed by this

phylogeny is the placement of *S. panacihumi* within the latter clade, making the genus *Stenotrophomonas* paraphyletic. It is worth noting that *S. panacihumi* is a non-validly described,

and poorly characterized species (Yi et al., 2010). The genus *Stenotrophomonas*, as currently defined, and excluding *S. panacihumi*, consists of two major clades, labeled as I and II in **Figure 5**, as previously defined (Ochoa-Sánchez and Vinuesa, 2017).

Clade I groups environmental isolates, recovered from different ecosystems, mostly soils and plant surfaces, classified as S. ginsengisoli (Kim et al., 2010), S. koreensis (Yang et al., 2006), S. daejeonensis (Lee et al., 2011), S. nitritireducens (Finkmann et al., 2000), S. acidaminiphila (Assih et al., 2002), S. humi, and S. terrae (Heylen et al., 2007). The recently described S. pictorum (Ouattara et al., 2017) is also included in clade I. These are all rather poorly studied species, for which only one or a few strains have been considered in the corresponding species description or to study particular aspects of their biology. None of these species have been reported as opportunistic pathogens, but some contain promising strains for plant growth-promotion and bio-remediation. Particularly notorious are the disproportionally long terminal branches (heterotachy) of S. ginsengisoli and S. *koreensis* (**Figure 5**). The potential impact of these long branches on the estimated phylogeny needs to be evaluated in future work.

Clade II contains the species S. rhizophila (Wolf et al., 2002), S. chelatiphaga (Kaparullina et al., 2009), the recently described S. bentonitica (Sánchez-Castro et al., 2017), along with multiple species and genospecies lumped in the S. maltophilia complex (Smc; shaded area in Figure 5) (Svensson-Stadler et al., 2012; Berg and Martinez, 2015). The Smc includes the validly described S. maltophilia (Palleroni and Bradbury, 1993) and S. pavanii (Ramos et al., 2011) (collapsed subclades Sm6 and Sm2, respectively, located within the clade labeled as S. maltophilia sensu lato in Figure 5), along with at least four undescribed genospecies (Sgn1-Sgn4) recently identified in our MLSA study of the genus (Ochoa-Sánchez and Vinuesa, 2017). In light of this phylogeny, we discovered 16 misclassified RefSeq genome sequences (out of 119; 13.44%), 14 of them labeled as S. maltophilia. These genomes are highlighted with black arrows in Figure 5. The phylogeny also supports the classification, either as a validly published species, or as new genospecies, of 8 (~6.72%) additional RefSeq genomes (gray arrows) lacking a species assignation in the RefSeq record, as summarized in Table 3. In addition, the phylogeny resolved 13 highly supported lineages (aBypp > 0.95) within the S. maltophilia sensu lato (Smsl) cluster, shown as collapsed clades. They have a cgANIb

TABLE 3 | RefSeq genome sequences reclassified in this study based on the genomic evidence presented herein (see Figures 5-7).

| DEFINITION (RefSeq classification) | Species/Reclassification* | Status | Fragments | BioProject | BioSample | PMID |
|--|---------------------------|-------------------|-----------|-------------|--------------|----------|
| Stenotrophomonas sp. 69-14 | S. acidaminiphila | Draft | 27 | PRJNA279279 | SAMN05660631 | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia ZBG7B | S. chelatiphaga | Draft | 145 | PRJNA272355 | SAMN03280975 | 26659682 |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia AA1 | Genospecies 2 (Sgn2/Smc2) | Comp l ete | 1 | PRJNA224116 | SAMN06130959 | 28275097 |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia 5BA-I-2 | Genospecies 3 | Draft | 4 | PRJNA224116 | SAMN02641498 | 24604648 |
| Stenotrophomonas sp. 92mfcol6.1 | Genospecies 3 | Draft | 11 | PRJNA224116 | SAMN04488690 | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia PierC1 | Genospecies 3 | Draft | 59 | PRJEB8824 | SAMEA3309462 | 26276674 |
| Stenotrophomonas sp. RIT309 | Genospecies 3 | Draft | 45 | PRJNA224116 | SAMN02676627 | 24812212 |
| Stenotrophomonas sp. SC-N050 | Genospecies 3 | Draft | 24 | PRJNA224116 | SAMN05720615 | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia SelTE02 | Genospecies 3 | Draft | 63 | PRJNA224116 | SAMEA3138997 | 24812214 |
| Stenotrophomonas sp. YR347 | Genospecies 3 | Draft | 11 | PRJNA224116 | SAMN05518671 | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia B4 | Genospecies 4 | Draft | 180 | PRJNA224116 | SAMN03753636 | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia Sm41DVV | Genospecies 4 | Draft | 26 | PRJNA323790 | SAMN05188789 | 27540065 |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia SmCVFa1 | Genospecies 4 | Draft | 30 | PRJNA323845 | SAMN05190067 | 27540065 |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia IAM 12423 | Genospecies 4 | Draft | 9 | PRJNA224116 | SAMN04487782 | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia SIDR01 | genospecies 4 | Draft | 2 | PRJNA248909 | SAMN06040735 | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia 13146 | S. bentonitica complex | Draft | 60 | PRJNA224116 | SAMN07237143 | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia BR12S | S. bentonitica | Draft | 80 | PRJNA224116 | SAMN03456145 | 26472823 |
| Stenotrophomonas sp. HMSC10F07 | S. bentonitica | Draft | 63 | PRJNA269850 | SAMN03287020 | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas sp. LM091 | S. bentonitica | Complete | 1 | PRJNA344031 | SAMN05818440 | 27979933 |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia PML168 | S. bentonitica | Draft | 97 | PRJNA224116 | SAMEA2272452 | 22887661 |
| Stenotrophomonas sp. Leaf70 | S. nitritireducens | Draft | 11 | PRJNA224116 | SAMN04151613 | 26633631 |
| Stenotrophomonas sp. KCTC 12332 | S. terrae complex | Complete | 1 | PRJNA310387 | SAMN04451766 | 28689013 |
| Stenotrophomonas nitritireducens 2001 | S. terrae complex | Complete | 1 | PRJNA224116 | SAMN05428703 | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia S028 | Stenotrophomonas sp. | Draft | 297 | PRJNA224116 | SAMN02469568 | 23144428 |
| Stenotrophomonas rhizophila QL-P4 | Stenotrophomonas sp. | Comp l ete | 1 | PRJNA326321 | SAMN05276013 | NA |

The numbered genospecies correspond to novel unnamed species identified by Ochoa-Sánchez and Vinuesa (2017) and in this study. Strains assigned to the S. bentonitica and the S. terrae complexes. Most likely represent novel species related to these species, respectively.

>96% (**Figure 5**). These lineages may represent 13 additional species in the Smsl clade, as detailed in following sections. Figure S4 shows the non-collapsed version of the species-tree displayed in **Figure 5**.

No genome sequences, nor MLSA data are available for the recently described *S. tumulicola* (Handa et al., 2016).

Pan-Genome Phylogenies for the Genus Stenotrophomonas Recover the Same Species Clades as the Core-Genome Phylogeny

A limitation of core-genome phylogenies is that they are estimated from the small fraction of single-copy genes shared by all organisms under study. Genes encoding adaptive traits relevant for niche-differentiation and subsequent speciation events typically display a lineage-specific distribution. Hence, phylogenetic analysis of pan-genomes, based on their differential gene-composition profiles, provide a complementary, more resolved and often illuminating perspective on the evolutionary relationships between species.

A consensus PGM containing 29,623 clusters was computed from the intersection of those generated by the COG-triangles and OMCL algorithms (Figure 6). This PGM was subjected to ML tree searching using the binary and morphological models implemented in IQT for phylogenetic analysis of discrete characters with the aid of the estimate_pangenome_phylogenies.sh script bundled with GET PHYLOMARKERS (Figure 1). As shown in the tabular inset of Figure 6, the binary GTR2+FO+R4 model was by large the best-fitting one (with the smallest AIC and BIC values). Twenty five independent IQT searches were performed on the consensus PGM with the best-fitting model. The best tree found is presented in Figure 6, rooted with the Xanthomonas spp. outgroup sequences. It depicts the evolutionary relationships of the 119 genomes based on their gene content (presenceabsence) profiles. The numbers on the nodes indicate the approximate Bayesian posterior probabilities (aBypp)/UFBoot2 support values (see methods). The same tree, but without collapsing clades, is presented in the Figure S5. This phylogeny resolves exactly the same species-like clades highlighted on the core-genome phylogeny presented in Figure 5, which are also grouped in the two major clades I and II. These are labeled with the same names and color-codes, for easy crosscomparison. However, there are some notorious differences in the phylogenetic relationships between species on both trees, like the placement of S. panacihumi outside of the Xanthomonas clade, and the sister relation of genospecies 3 (Sgnp3) to the S. maltophilia sensu lato clade. These same relationships were found in a multi-state (Wagner) parsimony phylogeny of the PGM shown in Figure S6. In summary, all core-genome and pan-genome analyses presented consistently support our previous claim that the five genospecies defined in our MLSA study represent distinct species and support the existence of multiple cryptic species within the Smsl clade, as defined in Figure 5.

Application of a Non-supervised Learning Approach to BLAST-Based Core-Genome Average Nucleotide Distance (cgANDb) Matrices to Identify Statistically-Consistent Species-Like Clusters

The final goal of any geno-taxonomic study is to identify species-like clusters. These should consist of monophyletic groups identified on genome trees that display average genome identity (gANI) values >94%, based on a widely accepted cutoff-value (Rosselló-Móra and Amann, 2015). In this section we searched for such species-clusters within the taxonomically problematic Stenotrophomonas maltophilia complex (Smc). Our core- and pan-genome phylogenies consistently identified potential species-clades within the Smc that grouped exactly the same strains (compare Figures 5, 6). We additionally performed a cluster analysis of core-genome ANI values computed from the pairwise BLASTN alignments (cgANIb) used to define OMCL core-genome clusters for the 86 Smc genomes analyzed in this study. The resulting cgANIb matrix was then converted to a distance matrix (cgANDb = 100%-cgANIb) and clustered with the aid of the plot_matrix_heatmap.sh script from the GET_HOMOLOGUES suite. Figure 7 shows the resulting cladogram, which resolves 16 clusters within the Smc at a conservative cgANDb cutoff value of 5% (cgANIb = 95%). At this distance level, the four genospecies labeled as Sgn1-Sgn4 on Figure 5 are resolved as five clusters because the most divergent Sgn1 genome (ESTM1D_MKCIP4_1) is split as a separate lineage. This is the case also at cgANDb = 6 (**Figure 7**), reason why this strain most likely represents a sixth genospecies. All these genospecies are very distantly related to the large S. maltophilia sensu lato cluster, which gets split into 11 subclusters at the conservative cgANDb = 5% cutoff. Thirteen clusters are resolved at the 4% threshold, and a minimum of seven at the 6% level (cgANIb = 94%), as shown by the dashed lines (Figure 7). These results strongly suggest that the S. maltophilia sensu lato clade (Figure 5) actually comprises multiple species. The challenging question is how many? In an attempt to find a statistically-sound answer, we applied an unsupervised learning approach based on the evaluation of different goodness of clustering statistics to determine the optimal number of clusters (k) for the cgANDb matrix. The gap-statistic and a parametric, model-based cluster analysis, yielded k-values \geq 35 (data not shown). These values seem too high for this dataset, as they correspond to a gANI value > 98%. However, the more conservative average silhouette width (ASW) method (Kaufman and Rousseeuw, 1990) identified an optimal k = 19 (inset in Figure 7) for the complete set of Smc genomes. This number of species-like clusters is much more reasonable for this data set, as it translates to a range of cgANDb between 4.5 and 4.7 (cgANIb range: 95.5-95.3%). Close inspection of the ASW profile reveals that the first peak is found at k = 13, which has an almost identical ASW as that of the maximal value and maps to a cgANDg = 5.7 (cgANIb of 94.3%). In summary, the range of reasonable numbers of clusters proposed by the ASW statistic (k = 13to k = 19) corresponds to cgANDb values in the range of

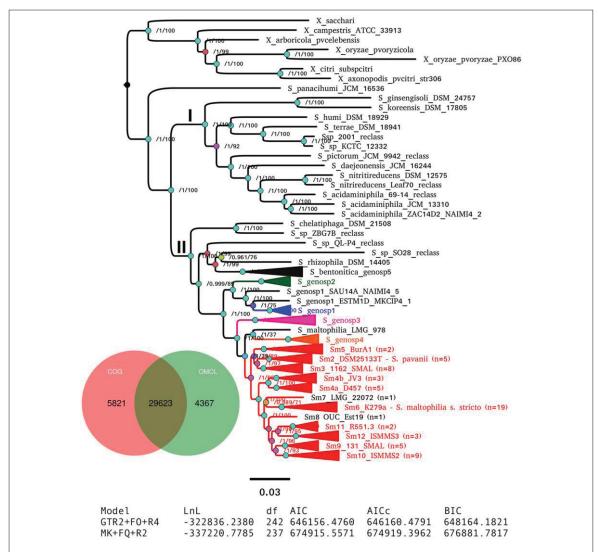
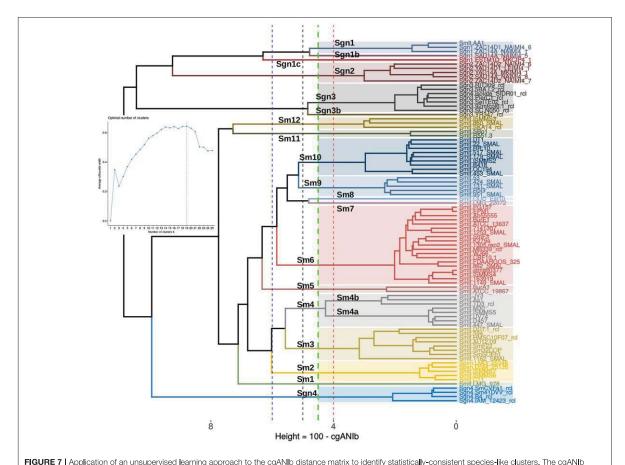


FIGURE 6 | Maximum-likelihood pan-genome phylogeny estimated with IQ-TREE from the consensus pan-genome clusters displayed in the Venn diagram. Clades of lineages belonging to the S. maltophilia complex are collapsed and are labeled as in Figure 5. Numbers on the internal nodes represent the approximate Bayesian posterior probability/UFBoot2 bipartition support values (see methods). The tabular inset shows the results of fitting either the binary (GTR2) or morphological (MK) models implemented in IQ-TREE, indicating that the former has an overwhelmingly better fit. The scale bar represents the number of expected substitutions per site under the binary GTR2+F0+R4 substitution model.

5.7–4.5% (cgANIb range: 94.3–95.5%), which fits well with the new gold-standard for species delimitation (gANI > 94%), established in influential works (Konstantinidis and Tiedje, 2005; Richter and Rosselló-Móra, 2009). We noted however, that at a cgANDb = 4.1% (cgANIb = 95.9%) the strain composition of the clusters was 100% concordant with the monophyletic subclades shown in the core-genome (**Figure 5**) and pan-genome (**Figure 6**) phylogenies. Importantly, at this cutoff, the length

of the branches subtending each cluster is maximal, both on the core-genome phylogeny (Figure 5) and on the cgANDb cladogram (Figure 7). Based on the combined and congruent evidence provided by these complementary approaches, we can safely conclude that: (i) the Smc genomes analyzed herein may actually comprise up to 19 or 20 different species-like lineages, and (ii) that only the strains grouped in the cluster labeled as Sm6 in Figures 5–7 should be called S. maltophilia.

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matrix was converted to a distance matrix (cgANDb) and clustered using the Ward.D2 algorithm. The optimal number of clusters (k) was determined with the average silhouette-width statistic. The inset shows the statistic's profile, with k=19 as the optimal number of clusters. This number corresponds to an cgANlb of 95.5% (gray dashed line). At a cgANDb of 4.1% (cgANlb = 95.9%) the groups delimited by the clustering approach are perfectly consistent with those delimited by the core- and pan-genome ML phylogenies displayed in **Figures 5**, **6**, respectively.

The latter is the most densely sampled species-like cluster (n = 19) and includes ATCC 13637^T, the type strain of the species.

On the Ecology and Other Biological Attributes of the Species-Like Clusters in the *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* Complex

In this final section we present a brief summary of the ecological attributes reported for selected members of the species-like clusters resolved within the Smc (Figures 5, 7). The four unnamed genospecies (Sgn1-Sgn4) group mainly environmental isolates. This is consistent with our previous evolutionary and ecological analyses of a comprehensive multilocus dataset of the genus (Ochoa-Sánchez and Vinuesa, 2017). In that study only Mexican environmental isolates were found to be members of the

newly discovered genospecies Sgn1 and Sgn2 (named as Smc1 and Smc2, respectively). In this work we discovered that the recently sequenced maize root isolate AA1 (Niu et al., 2017), misclassified as S. maltophilia, clusters tightly with the Sgn1 strains (Figure 5). The S. maltophilia sensu lato clade is split into 12 or 13 groups based on cgANDb (Figure 7). Sm6 forms the largest cluster, grouping mostly clinical isolates related to the type strain S. maltophilia ATCC 13637^T, like the model strain K279a (Crossman et al., 2008), ISMMS4 (Pak et al., 2015), 862_SMAL, 1149_SMAL, and 1253_SMAL (Roach et al., 2015), as well as EPM1 (Sassera et al., 2013), recovered from the human parasite Giardia duodenalis. However, this group also comprises some environmental isolates like BurE1, recovered from a bulk soil sample (Youenou et al., 2015). In summary, cluster Sm6 holds the bona fide S. maltophilia strains (sensu stricto), which may be welladapted to associate with different eukaryotic hosts and cause opportunistic infections in humans. Cluster Sm4a contains the model strain D574 (Lira et al., 2012) along with four other clinical isolates (Conchillo-Solé et al., 2015) and therefore may represent a second clade enriched in strains with high potential to cause opportunistic pathogenic infections in humans. Noteworthy, this group is distantly related to Sm6 (Figures 5, 7). Cluster Sm4b is closely related to Sm4a based on the pan-genome phylogeny and the cgANDd cladogram (Figures 6, 7). It groups the Brazilian rhizosphere-colonizing isolate JV3, the Chinese highly metaltolerant strain TD3 (Ge and Ge, 2016) and strain As1, isolated from the Asian malaria vector Anopheles stephensi (Hughes et al., 2016). The lineage Sm3 holds eight isolates of contrasting origin, including the Chinese soil isolate DDT-1, capable of using DDT as the sole source of carbon and energy (Pan et al., 2016), as well as clinical isolates like 1162_SMAL (Roach et al., 2015) and AU12-09, isolated from a vascular catheter (Zhang et al., 2013), and environmental isolates like SmF22, Sm32COP, and SmSOFb1, isolated from different manures in France (Bodilis et al., 2016). Cluster Sm2 groups the S. pavanii strains, including the type strain DSM_25135^T, isolated from the stems of sugar cane in Brazil (Ramos et al., 2011), together with the clinical isolates ISMMS6 and ISMMS7, that carry mutations conferring quinolone resistance and causing bacteremia (Pak et al., 2015), and strain C11, recovered from pediatric cystic fibrosis patients (Ormerod et al., 2015). Cluster Sm5 includes two strains recovered from soils, ATCC 19867 which was first classified as Pseudomonas hibiscicola, and later reclassified as S. maltophilia based on MLSA studies (Vasileuskaya-Schulz et al., 2011), and the African strain BurA1, isolated from bulk soil samples collected in sorghum fields in Burkina Faso (Youenou et al., 2015). Cluster Sm9 holds clinical isolates, like 131_SMAL, 424_SMAL, and 951_SMAL (Roach et al., 2015). Its sister group is Sm10. It holds 9 strains of contrasting geographic and ecological provenances, ranging from Chinese soil and plant-associated bacteria like the rice-root endophyte RR10 (Zhu et al., 2012), the grassland-soil tetracycline degrading isolate DT1 (Naas et al., 2008), and strain B418, isolated from a barley rhizosphere and displaying plant-growth promotion properties (Wu et al., 2015), to clinical isolates (22_SMAL, 179_SMAL, 453_SMAL, 517_SMAL) collected and studied in the context of a large genome sequencing project carried out at the University of Washington Medical Center (Roach et al., 2015). Cluster Sm11 tightly groups the well-characterized poplar endophyte R551-3, which is a model plant-growth-promoting bacterium (Ryan et al., 2009; Taghavi et al., 2009; Alavi et al., 2014) and SBo1, cultured from the gut of the olive fruit fly Bactrocera oleae (Blow et al., 2016). Cluster Sm 12 contains the environmental strain SKA14 (Adamek et al., 2014), along with the clinical isolates ISMMS3 (Pak et al., 2015) and 860_SMAL (Roach et al., 2015). Sm1, Sm7, and Sm8 each hold a single strain.

The following conclusions can be drawn from this analysis: (i) the species-like clusters within the *S. maltophilia sensu lato* (Smsl) clade (**Figure 5**) are enriched in opportunistic human pathogens, when compared with the Smc clusters Sgn1-Sgn4; (ii) most Smsl clusters also contain diverse non-clinical isolates isolated from a wide range of habitats, demonstrating the great ecological versatility found even within specific Smsl clusters like Sm3 or Sm10; (iii) taken together, these observations strongly

suggest that the Smsl species-like clusters are all of environmental origin, with the potential for the opportunistic colonization of diverse human organs. This potential may be particularly high in certain lineages, like in *S. maltophilia sensu stricto* (Sm6) or Sm4a, both enriched in clinical isolates. However, a much denser sampling of genomes and associated phenotypes is required for all clusters to be able to identify statistically sound associations between them.

DISCUSSION

this study we developed and benchmarked GET_PHYLOMARKERS, an open-source, comprehensive, and easy-to-use software package for phylogenomics and microbial genome taxonomy. Programs like amphora (Wu and Eisen, 2008) or phylosift (Darling et al., 2014) allow users to infer genome-phylogenies from huge genomic and metagenomic datasets by scanning new sequences against a reference database of conserved protein sequences to establish the phylogenetic relationships between the query sequences and database hits. The first program searches the input data for homologs to a set of 31 highly conserved proteins used as phylogenetic markers. Phylosift is more oriented toward the phylogenetic analysis of metagenome community composition and structure. Other approaches have been developed to study large populations of a single species. These are based on the identification of SNPs in sequence reads produced by high-throughput sequencers, using either reference-based or reference-free approaches, and subjecting them to phylogenetic analysis (Timme et al., 2013). The GET_PHYLOMARKERS software suite was designed with the aim of identifying orthologous clusters with optimal attributes for phylogenomic analysis and accurate species-tree inference. It also provides tools to infer phylogenies from pan-genomes, as well as non-supervised learning approaches for the analysis of overall genome relatedness indices (OGRIs) for geno-taxonomic studies of multiple genomes. These attributes make GET_PHYLOMARKERS unique in the field.

It is well-established that the following factors strongly affect the accuracy of genomic phylogenies: (i) correct orthology inference; (ii) multiple sequence alignment quality; (iii) presence of recombinant sequences; (iv) loci producing anomalous phylogenies, which may result for example from horizontal gene transfer, differential loss of paralogs between lineages, and (ν) amount of the phylogenetic signal. GET_PHYLOMARKERS aims to minimize the negative impact of potentially problematic, or poorly performing orthologous clusters, by explicitly considering and evaluating these factors. Orthologous clusters were identified with GET_HOMOLGOUES (Contreras-Moreira and Vinuesa, 2013) because of its distinctive capacity to compute high stringency clusters of single-copy orthologs. In this study we used a combination of BLAST alignment filtering, imposing a high (90%) query coverage threshold, PFAM-domain composition scanning and calculation of a consensus core-genome from the orthologous gene families produced by three clustering algorithms (BDBH, COGtriangles and OMCL) to minimize errors in orthology inference. Multiple sequence alignments were generated with CLUSTAL-OMEGA (Sievers et al., 2012), a state-of-the-art software under constant development, capable of rapidly aligning hundreds of protein sequences with high accuracy, as reported in recent benchmark studies (Le et al., 2017; Sievers and Higgins, 2018). GET_PHYLOMARKERS generates protein alignments and uses them to compute the corresponding DNA-alignments, ensuring that the codon structure is always properly maintained. Recombinant sequences have been known for a long time to strongly distort phylogenies because they merge independent evolutionary histories into a single lineage. Recombination erodes the phylogenetic signal and misleads classic treeing algorithms, which assume a single underlying history (Schierup and Hein, 2000; Posada and Crandall, 2002; Martin, 2009; Didelot and Maiden, 2010; Pease and Hahn, 2013; Turrientes et al., 2014). Hence, the first filtering step in the pipeline is the detection of putative recombinant sequences using the very fast, sensitive and robust phi(w) statistic (Bruen et al., 2005). The genus Stenotrophomonas has been previously reported to have high recombination rates (Yu et al., 2016; Ochoa-Sánchez and Vinuesa, 2017). It is therefore not surprising that the phi(w) statistic detected significant evidence for recombination in up to 47% of the orthologous clusters. The non-recombinant sequences are subsequently subjected to maximum-likelihood phylogenetic inference to identify anomalous gene trees using the non-parametric kdetrees statistic (Weyenberg et al., 2014, 2017). The method estimates distributions of phylogenetic trees over the "tree space" expected under the multispeciescoalescent, identifying outlier trees based on their topologies and branch lengths in the context of this distribution. Since this test is applied downstream of the recombination analysis, only a modest, although still significant proportion (14-17%) of outlier trees were detected (Table 2). The next step determines the phylogenetic signal content of each gene tree (Vinuesa et al., 2008). It has been previously established that highly informative trees are less prone to get stuck in local optima (Money and Whelan, 2012). They are also required to properly infer divergence at the deeper nodes of a phylogeny (Salichos and Rokas, 2013), and to get reliable estimates of tree congruence and branch support in large concatenated datasets typically used in phylogenomics (Shen et al., 2017). We found that IQT-based searches allowed a significantly more efficient filtering of poorly resolved trees than FastTree. This is likely due to the fact that the former fits more sophisticated models (with more parameters) to better account for amongsite rate variation. Under-parameterized and poorly fitting substitution models partly explain the apparent overestimation of bipartition support values done by FastTree. This is also the cause of the poorer performance of FastTree, which finds gene trees that generally have lower lnL scores than those found by IQT. A recent comparison of the performance of four fast ML phylogenetic programs using large phylogenomic data sets identified IQT (Nguyen et al., 2015) as the most accurate algorithm. It consistently found the highest-scoring trees. FastTree (Price et al., 2010) was, by large, the fastest program evaluated, although at the price of being the less accurate one (Zhou et al., 2017). This is in line with our findings. We could show that the higher accuracy of IQT is particularly striking when using large concatenated datasets. As stated above, this is largely attributable to the richer choice of models implemented in the former. ModelFinder (Kalyaanamoorthy et al., 2017) selected GTR+ASC+F+R6 model for the concatenated supermatrix, which is much richer in parameters than the GTR+CAT+Gamma20 model fitted by FastTree. The +ASC is an ascertainment bias correction parameter, which should be applied to alignments without constant sites (Lewis, 2001), such as the supermatrices generated by GET_PHYLOMARKERS (see methods). The FreeRate model (+R) generalizes the +G model (fitting a discrete Gamma distribution to model among-site rate variation) by relaxing the assumption of Gamma-distributed rates (Yang, 1995). The FreeRate model typically fits data better than the +G model and is recommended for the analysis of large data sets (Soubrier et al., 2012).

The impact of substitution models in phylogenetics has been extensively studied (Posada and Buckley, 2004). However, the better models implemented in IQT are not the only reason for its superior performance. A key aspect strongly impacting the quality of phylogenomic inference with large datasets is treesearching. This has been largely neglected in most molecular systematic and phylogenetic studies of prokaryotes (Vinuesa et al., 2008; Vinuesa, 2010; Ochoa-Sánchez and Vinuesa, 2017). Due to the factorial increase of the number of distinct bifurcating topologies possible with every new sequence added to an alignment (Felsenstein, 2004a), searching the tree-space for large datasets is an NP-hard (non-deterministic polynomialtime) problem that necessarily requires heuristic algorithms. This implies that once an optimum is found, there is no way of telling whether it is the global one. The strategy to gain quantitative evidence about the quality of a certain tree is to compare its score in the context of other trees found in searches initiated from a pool of different seed trees. Due to the high dimensionality of the likelihood space, and the strict "hill-climbing" nature of ML tree search algorithms (Felsenstein, 1981), they generally get stuck in local optima (Money and Whelan, 2012). The scores of the best trees found in each search can then be compared in the form of an "lnL score profile," as performed in our study. Available software implementations for fast ML tree searching use different branchswapping strategies to try to escape from early encountered "local optima." IQT implements a more efficient tree-searching strategy than FastTree, based on a combination of hill-climbing and stochastic nearest-neighbor interchange (NNI) operations, always keeping a pool of seed trees, which help to escape local optima (Nguyen et al., 2015). This was evident when the lnL score profiles of both programs were compared. IQT found a much better scoring species tree despite the much higher number of independent searches performed with FastTree (50 vs. 1,001) using its most intensive branch-swapping regime. An important finding of our study is the demonstration that the lnL search profile of IQT is much shallower than that of FastTree. This suggests that the former finds trees much closer to the potential optimum than the latter. It has been shown that the highestscoring (best) trees tend to have shorter branches, and overall tree-length, than those stuck in worse local optima (Money and Whelan, 2012). In agreement with this report, the best species-tree found by IQT has a notoriously shorter total length and significantly shorter edges than those of the best species-tree found by FastTree.

Our extensive benchmark analysis conclusively demonstrated the superior performance of IQT. Based on this evidence, it was chosen as the default search algorithm for GET_PHYLOMARKERS. However, it should be noted that topological differences between the best trees found by both programs were minor, not affecting the composition of the major clades in the corresponding species trees. It is therefore safe to conclude that the reclassification of Stenotrophomonas genome sequences proposed in Table 3 is robust. They are consistently supported by the species-trees estimated with both programs. This result underlines the utility of GET_PHYLOMARKERS to identify misclassified genomes in public sequence repositories, a problem found in many genera (Sangal et al., 2016; Gomila et al., 2017). GET PHYLOMARKERS is unique in its ability to combine core-genome phylogenomics with ML and parsimony phylogeny estimation from the PGM. In line with other recent studies (Caputo et al., 2015; Tu and Lin, 2016), we demonstrate that pan-genome analyses are valuable in the context of microbial molecular systematics and taxonomy. All genomes found to be misclassified based on the phylogenomic analysis of coregenomes were corroborated by the ML and parsimony analyses of the PGM. Furthermore, the combined evidence gained from these independent approaches consistently revealed that the Smc contains up to 20 monophyletic and strongly supported species-like clusters. These are defined at the cgANIb 95.9% threshold, and include the previously identified genospecies Smc1-Smc4 (Ochoa-Sánchez and Vinuesa, 2017), and up to 13 genospecies within the S. maltophilia sensu lato clade. This threshold fits well with the currently favored gANI > 94% cutoff for species delimitation (Konstantinidis and Tiedje, 2005; Richter and Rosselló-Móra, 2009). The consistency among all the different approaches strongly supports the proposed delimitations. We used an unsupervised learning procedure to determine the optimal number of clusters (k) in the cgANDb matrix computed from the 86 Smc genomes analyzed. The ASW goodness of clustering statistic proposed an optimal k = 19, which corresponds to a gANI = 95.5%. At this cutoff, 12 (instead of 13) species-like clusters are delimited within the S. maltophilia sensu lato clade. This unsupervised learning method therefore seems promising to define the optimal number of clusters in ANI-like matrices using a statistical procedure. However, it should be critically and extensively evaluated in other geno-taxonomic studies to better understand its properties and possible limitations, before being broadly

Current models of microbial speciation predict that bacterial species-like lineages should be identifiable by significantly reduced gene flow between them, even when recombination levels are high within species (Cadillo-Quiroz et al., 2012; Shapiro et al., 2012). Such lineages should also display differentiated ecological niches and phenotypes (Koeppel et al., 2008; Shapiro and Polz, 2015). In our previous comprehensive multilocus sequence analysis of species borders in the genus Stenotrophomonas (Ochoa-Sánchez and Vinuesa, 2017) we could

show that those models fitted our data well. We found highly significant genetic differentiation and marginal geneflow across strains from sympatric Smc1 and Smc2 lineages, as well as highly significant differences in the resistance profiles of S. maltophilia sensu lato isolates vs. Smc1 and Smc2 isolates. We could also show that all three lineages have different habitat preferences (Ochoa-Sánchez and Vinuesa, 2017). The genomic analyses presented in this study for five Smc1 and Smc2 strains, respectively, fully support their separate species status from a geno-taxonomic perspective. Given the recognized importance of gene gain and loss processes in bacterial speciation and ecological specialization (Richards et al., 2014; Caputo et al., 2015; Shapiro and Polz, 2015; Jeukens et al., 2017), as reported also in plants (Gordon et al., 2017), we think that the evidence gained from pan-genome phylogenies is particularly informative for microbial genotaxonomic investigations. They should be used to validate the groupings obtained by the classical gANI cutoff-based species delimitation procedure (Konstantinidis and Tiedie, 2005; Goris et al., 2007; Richter and Rosselló-Móra, 2009) that dominates current geno-taxonomic research. It is well documented that pan-genome-based groupings tend to better reflect ecologically relevant phenotypic differences between groups (Lukjancenko et al., 2010; Caputo et al., 2015; Jeukens et al., 2017). We recommend that future geno-taxonomic studies search for a consensus of the complementary views of genomic diversity provided by OGRIs, core- and pan-genome phylogenies, as performed herein. GET_PHYLOMARKERS is a useful and versatile tool for this task.

In summary, in this study we developed a comprehensive and powerful suite of open-source computational tools for state-of-the art phylogenomic and pan-genomic analyses. Their application to critically analyze the geno-taxonomic status of the genus Stenotrophomonas provided compelling evidence that the taxonomically ill-defined S. maltophilia complex holds many cryptic species. However, we refrain at this point from making formal taxonomic proposals for them because we have not yet performed the above-mentioned population genetic analyses to demonstrate the genetic cohesiveness of the individual species and their differentiation from closely related ones. This will be the topic of a follow-up work in preparation. We think that comparative genomic analyses designed to identify lineage-specific genetic differences that may underlie nichedifferentiation of species are also powerful and objective criteria to delimit species in any taxonomic group (Vinuesa et al., 2005; Ochoa-Sánchez and Vinuesa, 2017).

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

PV designed the project, wrote the bulk of the code, assembled the genomes, performed the analyses and wrote the paper. LO-S isolated the strains sequenced in this study and performed all wet-lab experiments. BC-M was involved in the original design of the project, contributed code, and set up the docker image. All authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

FUNDING

We gratefully acknowledge the funding provided by DGAPA/PAPIIT-UNAM (grants IN201806-2, IN211814 and IN206318) and CONACyT-México (grants P1-60071, 179133 and FC-2105-2-879) to PV, as well as the Fundación ARAID, Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas (grant 200720I038 and Spanish MINECO (AGL2013-48756-R) to BC-M.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Javier Rivera for excellent technical support with wet-lab experiments and José Alfredo Hernández and Víctor

del Moral for support with server administration. Jason Steeel from the DNASU Sequencing Core at The Biodesign Institute, Arizona State University, is acknowledged for generating the genome sequences of our samples. Dr. Claudia Silva is thanked for her critical reading of the manuscript. We are thankful to GitHub (https://github.com/), docker (https://hub.docker.com/) and the open-source community at large, for providing great resources for software development.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

The Supplementary Material for this article can be found online at: https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fmicb. 2018.00771/full#supplementary-material

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- **Conflict of Interest Statement:** The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

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Anexo 5. Material suplementario del artículo GET_PHYLOMARKERS, a Software Package to Select Optimal Orthologous Clusters for Phylogenomics and Inferring Pan-Genome Phylogenies, Used for a Critical Geno-Taxonomic Revision of the Genus Stenotrophomonas

https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fmicb.2018.00771/full#supplementary-material



Supplementary material for:

Vinuesa P*, Ochoa-Sánchez LE and Contreras-Moreira B (2018). GET_PHYLOMARKERS, a software package to select optimal orthologous clusters for phylogenomics and inferring pan-genome phylogenies, used for a critical geno-taxonomic revision of the genus Stenotrophomonas. Front. Microbiol. 9:771. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2018.00771

https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fmicb.2018.00771/full

Published as part of the Research Topic on: **Microbial Taxonomy, Phylogeny and Biodiversity**: https://www.frontiersin.org/research-topics/5493/microbial-taxonomy-phylogeny-and-biodiversity

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Running title: Estimating genome phylogenies with GET PHYLOMARKERS

The code described in this work is written in Bash, Perl and R for Linux/Unix/MacOS servers, and is freely available at https://github.com/vinuesa/get_phylomarkers under the GNU GPLv3 license. A docker image bundling it with GET_HOMOLOGUES is also available at https://hub.docker.com/r/csicunam/get_homologues/, which can be run on Windows machines.

Contents:

- 1. Supplementary figures S1-S6
- 2. Supplementary tables S1 and S2
- 3. Supplementary code snippets, as examples on how to run a selection of the auxiliary scripts distributed in the GET_PHYLOMARKERS package

1. Supplementary Figures

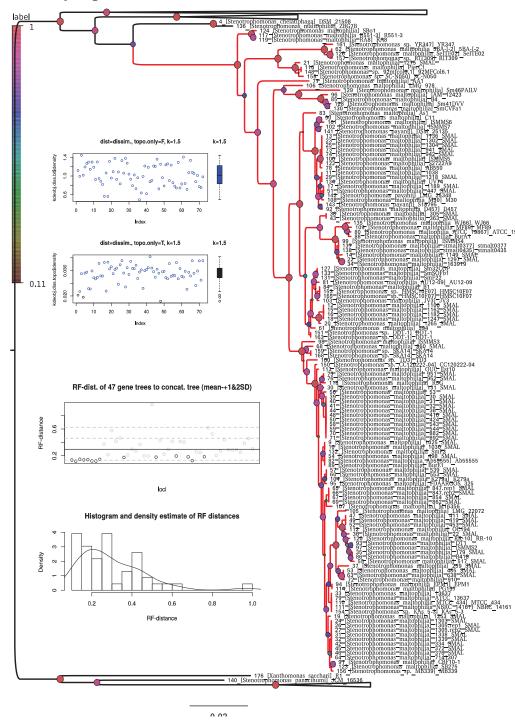


Figure S1. Maximum-likelihood phylogeny (FastTree) of the full set of reference genomes analyzed in this study (170 *Stenotrophomonas* spp. + 7 *Xanthomonas* spp.). Some clades collapsed for better readability of the tree.

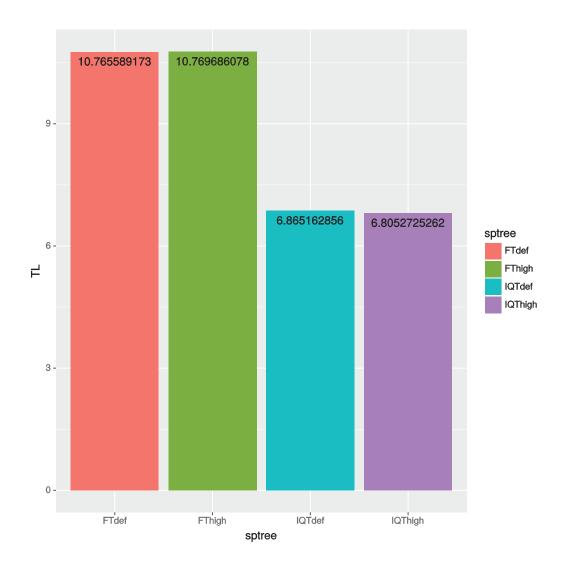


Figure S2. Barplot of the tree-lengths (summ of edge lengths) of each species-tree estimated by the indicated search types (see Table 2).

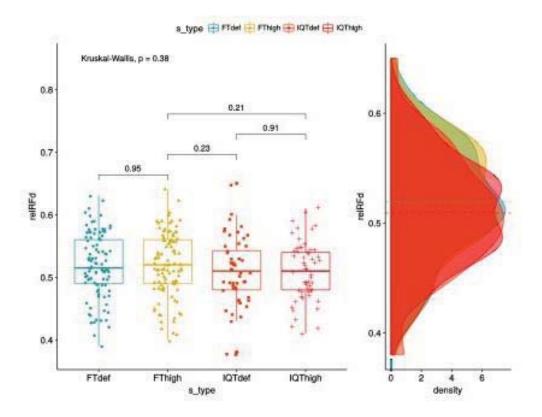


Figure S3. Distribution of Robinson-Foulds distances of gene trees to the corresponding species tree computed from the supermatrix of concatenated top-scoring markers by each search type.

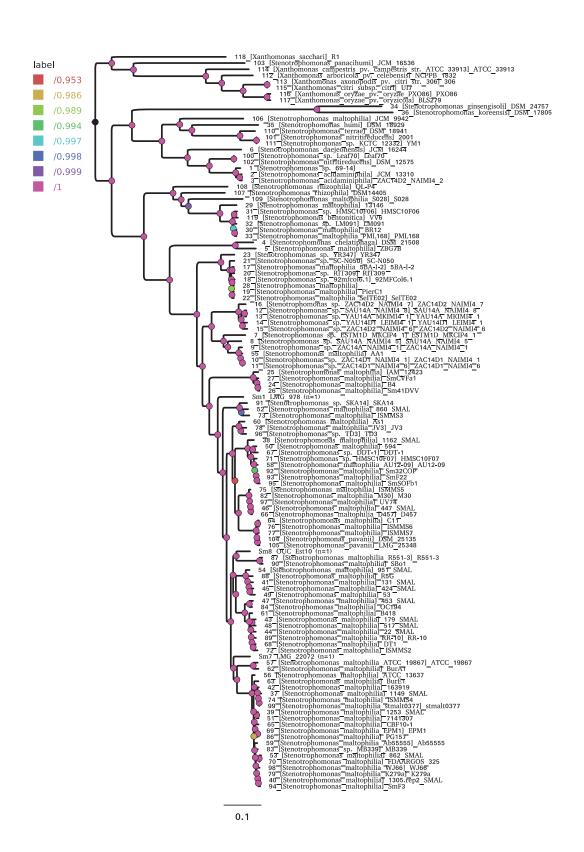


Figure S4. Full version of the IQ-TREE ML species tree for 119 genomes shown in Figure 5 of the main text.

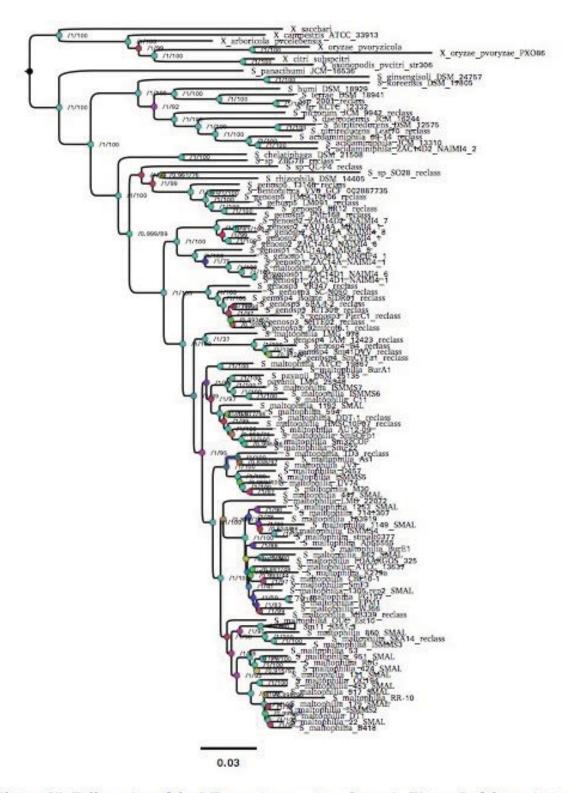


Figure S5. Full version of the ML pan-genome tree shown in Figure 6 of the main text

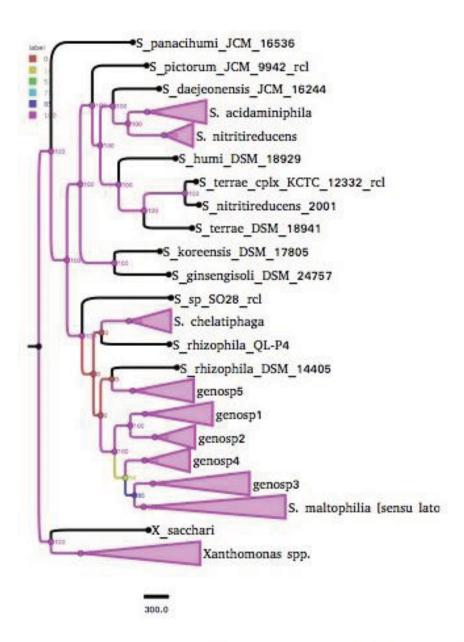


Figure S6. Best parsimony tree (score = 63977) found among 3200 independent pars searches + bootstrap analysis (4000 pseudoreplicates) performed on the PGM (31,433 consensus clusters computed from those identified by COGtriangles + OMC) for 118 selected Stenotrophomonas + Xanthomonas (outgroup) genomes.

2. Supplementary tables

Table S1. Overview of key characteristics of the genome assemblies reported in this study for 10 environmental isolates recovered from Mexican rivers and classified as genospecies 1 and 2 in the study of Ochoa-Sánchez and Vinuesa (2017). Details of their isolation sites and antimicrobial resistance phenotypes can be found therein. All genomes consist of a single gapped scaffold. The RefSeq acc. numbers and key annotation features for each genome are presented in Table 1 of the main text.

| Genome | Num_gaps | Num_Ns | Size_nt | BioProject | BioSample |
|---|----------|--------|---------|-------------|--------------|
| Stenotrophomonas genospecies1 ESTM1D MKCIP4 1 | 6 | 240 | 4475880 | PRJNA429695 | SAMN08357817 |
| Stenotrophomonas genospecies1 SAU14A NAIMI4 5 | 9 | 180 | 4570883 | PRJNA429695 | SAMN08357818 |
| Stenotrophomonas genospecies1 ZAC14A NAIMI4 1 | 11 | 575 | 4698328 | PRJNA429695 | SAMN08357819 |
| Stenotrophomonas genospecies1 ZAC14D1 NAIMI4 1 | 3 | 1076 | 4702461 | PRJNA429695 | SAMN08357820 |
| Stenotrophomonas genospecies1 ZAC14D1 NAIMI4 6 | 11 | 920 | 4700343 | PRJNA429695 | SAMN08357821 |
| Stenotrophomonas genospecies2 SAU14A NAIMI4 8 | 4 | 369 | 4479100 | PRJNA429695 | SAMN08357822 |
| Stenotrophomonas genospecies2 YAU14A MKIMI4 1 | 9 | 1361 | 4487007 | PRJNA429695 | SAMN08357823 |
| Stenotrophomonas genospecies2 YAU14D1 LEIMI4 1 | 5 | 193 | 4319112 | PRJNA429695 | SAMN08357824 |
| Stenotrophomonas genospecies2 ZAC14D2 NAIMI4 6 | 9 | 347 | 4431104 | PRJNA429695 | SAMN08357825 |
| Stenotrophomonas genospecies2 ZAC14D2 NAIMI4 7 | 13 | 423 | 4468731 | PRJNA429695 | SAMN08357826 |

Table S2. Genomic characteristics of the selected reference genomes after excluding the highly fragmented ones (> 300 contigs).

| Section politions of scilearing politics of the specific politics | Genus | Species | Reclass | Strain | Fragments | Size_nt | Status | BioProject | BioSample | Assembly | PMID |
|--|------------------|----------------|---------|------------------|-----------|---------|------------|-------------|--------------|-----------------|----------|
| Schenotrophomonous continentation Num. ZACI LID_XAMINI L.2 1 4 138207 Complex continentation SAMINGERITIES CCA_00114305.1 25072367 Semicorrophomonous chelanistage Num. VID 200 145 4360390 defit PRINA 227250 AMMINICATIONS 2073286 2457246 200 <t< td=""><td>Stenotrophomonas</td><td>acidaminiphila</td><td>Y</td><td>69-14</td><td>27</td><td>3693706</td><td>draft</td><td>PRJNA279279</td><td>SAMN05660631</td><td></td><td>NA</td></t<> | Stenotrophomonas | acidaminiphila | Y | 69-14 | 27 | 3693706 | draft | PRJNA279279 | SAMN05660631 | | NA |
| Secontrophomonous of electricity of the Statisty of th | Stenotrophomonas | acidaminiphila | N | JCM_13310 | 126 | 3942520 | draft | PRJNA284377 | SAMN03701729 | | 27014232 |
| Scientifiphonomous of includiplays V. D. 28GTB 45 465509 drill FRINAZYZES SAMONIZZORFS 2016 220 27014222 201422 | Stenotrophomonas | acidaminiphila | N | ZAC14D2_NAIMI4_2 | 1 | 4138297 | complete | PRJNA296415 | SAMN04099006 | GCA_001314305.1 | 26659678 |
| Schotzophomono obligation of the labylang in the properties of the processing | Stenotrophomona | bentonitica | N | VV6 | 45 | 4364949 | draft | PRJNA427609 | SAMN08241739 | GCA_002887735.1 | 29472346 |
| Semotrophomonon doctorophomonon doctorophomonon N JCL [6244 124 384855 chromonomonon PRUNAZENIO AMNOSTOTZO 2014232 2014232 Semotrophomonon genoga Y Sentacidia 11 459624 draft PRUNAZENIG SAMNOSTOTZO CCE-00154385.1 2404488 Semotrophomonon genoga Y Picalia 5 4583575 draft PRURBERED SAMMARBRO CCE-00166205.1 2402767 Semotrophomonon genoga Y Scritor 2 4 44844 draft PRURBERED SAMMOSTORIS CCE-0001805.1 2412212 Semotrophomonon genoga Y Scritor 3 457111 draft PRUNAZENIIG SAMMOSTORIO CCE-0001805.1 A12212 Semotrophomonon genoga Y Scritor 1 4414400 draft PRUNAZENIIG SAMMOSTORIO CCE-001805.1 A14 Semotrophomonon genoga Y Ball V 3 435713 draft < | Stenotrophomonas | chelatiphaga | Y | ZBG7B | 145 | 4065399 | draft | PRJNA272355 | SAMN03280975 | | 26659682 |
| Schootophonomous grossisis Y SBA-22 4 4569554 6nff PRUNAZ24116 SAMNOS64408 CCP_00014305.1 20404441.1 204044305.1 20404441.1 20404441.1 204044441.1 204044441.1 204044441.1 | Stenotrophomonas | chelatiphaga | N | DSM_21508 | 148 | 3967734 | draft | PRJNA284369 | SAMN03701678 | | 27014232 |
| Scient συρίσουποιος genegas Y Spraction (a) 11 4596229 dial. PRUNA 224116 SAMNOVARRORO CC p. 900110025.1 NA Scient συρήσουπους genogas Y RT1300 55 4638755 fall PRUNA 224116 SAMNOS/10520 CC p. 00051205.1 2411212 Scient συρήσουπους genogas Y SCNEDO 24 484444 dial. PRUNA 224116 SAMNOS/20520 CC p. 00051205.1 2481214 Scient συρήσουπους genogas Y SERTER 63 457111 dial. PRUNA 224116 SAMNOS/20530 CC p. 00051205.1 A841214 Scient συρήσουπους genogas Y BA 140 46466 dial. PRUNA 224116 SAMNOS/205300 CC p. 0011325.1 A8 Scient συρήσουπους genogas Y BA 140 60 dial. PRUNA 224116 SAMNOS/20530 CC p. 0011325.1 A3 Scient συρήσουπους genogas Y BA 140 40 dial. PRUNA 224116 | Stenotrophomonas | daejeonensis | N | JCM_16244 | 124 | 3284859 | chromosome | PRJNA284378 | SAMN03701730 | | 27014232 |
| Scientarphonomous geneg3 Y PerC1 59 4538575 defit PRINB62241 SAMAD3576627 GCF_0005303451 2412212 Scientarphonomous geneg3 Y RT509 45 4384445 defit PRINA22416 SAMN0576627 GCF_0005130511 2412212 Scientarphonomous geneg3 Y SetT602 3 455711 defit PRINA22416 SAMN0575667 GCF_000113051 241214 Scientarphonomous geneg4 Y B44 180 433733 defit PRINA224116 SAMN0575965 GCF_000113051 NA Scientarphonomous geneg4 Y B4 180 433733 defit PRINA224116 SAMN0579905 GCF_000113451 NA Scientarphonomous geneg4 Y BerCVE1 3 460256 defit PRINA22416 SAMN0487902 GCF_00013451 NA Scientarphonomous geneg4 Y BerCVFa1 346 415762 defit PRINA22416 SAMN0519806 GCF_ | Stenotrophomonas | genosp3 | Y | 5BA-I-2 | 4 | 4568054 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN02641498 | GCF_000543365.1 | 24604648 |
| Schortoriphonomous genosp3 Y RIT209 45 4534795 draft pRINA224116 SAMN05276627 CCF_000632043.1 2412121 Semotrophonomous genosp3 Y SCA-0550 24 448445 draft PRINA224116 SAMN05720615 GCF_000111475.1 NA Semotrophonomous genosp3 Y SERTEQ 63 455711 draft PRINA224116 SAMN0518670 GCF_000113051.1 NA Semotrophonomous genosp4 Y 84 180 4334733 draft PRINA224116 SAMN048776365 GCF_001124251.1 NA Semotrophonomous genosp4 N IAM_12423 9 4144400 draft PRINA224116 SAMN0487762 CCF_001114251 NA Semotrophonomous genosp4 Y SantDVV 26 433972 draft PRINA224890 SAMN04897782 CCF_001114251 NA Semotrophonomous genosp5 Y Brill DVV 26 433972 draft PRINA224890 SAMN04890735 GCF_00107233.1 NA Semotrophonomous genosp5 Y | Stenotrophomonas | genosp3 | Y | 92mfcol6.1 | 11 | 4596228 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN04488690 | GCF_900116025.1 | NA |
| Semotrophomonous genosq3 Y Sch0000 24 448444 draft PRINAZ24116 SAMNO5720615 GCE_00011475.1 NA Semotrophomonous genosq3 Y Sch1002 63 457111 draft PRINAZ24116 SAMR05313697 GCE_00013051 2841214 Semotrophomonas genosq4 Y PA 180 4334733 draft PRINAZ24116 SAMN05375366 GCE_0012763551 NA Semotrophomonas genosq4 N Isolate_SIDR01 2 4692555 draft PRINAZ24186 SAMN06375366 GCE_0001134251 NA Semotrophomonas genosq4 N Isolate_SIDR01 2 4692555 draft PRINAZ24899 SAMN06819676 NA Semotrophomonas genosq5 Y BIS12 8 4261175 draft PRINAZ2418 SAMN03816967 NA A Semotrophomonas genosp5 Y BIS12 8 4405362 draft PRINAZ24186 SAMN0381646 GCE_00020215651 NA | Stenotrophomonas | genosp3 | Y | PierC1 | 59 | 4638575 | draft | PRJEB8824 | SAMEA3309462 | | 26276674 |
| Semotrophomonas genosp3 Y SelTEQ2 63 455711 draft PRINAZ24116 SAMEA3188997 GCE_000613205. 2812214 Semotrophomonas genosp3 Y Y8347 11 488524 draft PRINAZ24116 SAMN05318676 GCE_001081515. NA Semotrophomonas genosp4 N IAM_12423 9 414460 draft PRINAZ24116 SAMN06407782 GCE_0011745551 NA Semotrophomonas genosp4 N ISolate_SIDR01 2 460555 draft PRINAZ24105 SAMN06407782 GCE_0011746551 NA Semotrophomonas genosp4 Y Smt1DV 26 4139723 draft PRINA324805 SAMN0519067 NA Semotrophomonas genosp5 Y 18182 60 444179 draft PRINA324816 SAMN0518067 GCE_000972331 2672823 Semotrophomonas genosp5 Y HMSC10F66 63 414905 draft PRINA22416 SAMN03816145 GCE_000972331 | Stenotrophomonas | genosp3 | Y | RIT309 | 45 | 4634795 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN02676627 | GCF_000632045.1 | 24812212 |
| ScientaryIntomonals genesp3 Y YR347 11 4686524 death PRINAZ24116 SAMNOS318671 GCE_90018015.1 NA Semotorphomonas genesp4 Y B4 180 434733 draft PRINAZ24116 SAMNO3753536 GCE_9001134251 NA Semotorphomonas genesp4 N Isolate_SIDR01 2 460255 daft PRINAZ24116 SAMNO4867073 NA Semotorphomonas genesp4 Y sml1DVV 26 413972 daft PRINA32239 SAMNO5189789 NA NA Semotorphomonas genesp5 Y SMl1DV 26 413972 daft PRINA322416 SAMNO5189067 NA Semotorphomonas genesp5 Y BIST 80 403362 daft PRINA22416 SAMNO5189761 GCE_902051651 NA Semotorphomonas genesp5 Y BIST 80 403876 daft PRINA22416 SAMNO3297020 NA Semotorphomonas genesp5 | Stenotrophomonas | genosp3 | Y | SC-N050 | 24 | 4484445 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN05720615 | GCF_900111475.1 | NA |
| Scientoriophomonas genesy4 Y B4 180 433473 draft PRINA224116 SAMN03758366 GCP_001276355.1 NA Scientoriophomonas genosy4 N isolate_SIDR01 2 4602565 draft PRINA248099 SAMN06487782 CCF_900113425.1 NA Scientoriophomonas genosy4 N isolate_SIDR01 2 4602565 draft PRINA248099 SAMN06180075 NA Scientoriophomonas genosy4 Y SmtVPs1 30 4264176 draft PRINA238085 SAMN06180007 NA Scientoriophomonas genosy5 Y 31466 60 4444179 draft PRINA224116 SAMN05180007 CCF_0020561651 NA Scientoriophomonas genosy5 Y BIASC 60 4440582 draft PRINA224116 SAMN0346165 GCF_000398331 2287823 Scientoriophomonas genosy5 Y PML168 97 440876 draft PRINA24411 SAMN03761675 GCF_000398331 | Stenotrophomonas | genosp3 | Y | SeITE02 | 63 | 4557111 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMEA3138997 | GCF_000613205.1 | 24812214 |
| Scientoriophomonas genessy4 N IAM_12423 9 4144460 draft PRINA224116 SAMN04487762 GCF_900113425.1 NA Scientoriophomonas genosp4 N biolate_SIDR01 2 4602565 draft PRINA22390 SAMN06189789 NA Scientoriophomonas genosp4 Y SmilDVV 26 4139723 draft PRINA223165 SAMN05189789 NA Scientoriophomonas genosp4 Y SmilDVV 26 4139723 draft PRINA223165 SAMN051897189 NA Scientoriophomonas genosp5 Y BR12 80 4465362 draft PRINA224116 SAMN03287020 CCF_0009972335.1 26472823 Scientoriophomonas genosp5 Y IMBG 1 4317450 Complete PRINA224116 SAMN03287020 NA Scientoriophomonas genosp5 Y IMILG 4403876 draft PRINA24916 SAMN03301675 CCF_000398335.1 228876612 Scientoriophomonas | Stenotrophomonas | genosp3 | Y | YR347 | 11 | 4686524 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN05518671 | GCF_900188015.1 | NA |
| Semotrophomonas genosp4 N Solate_SIDRO1 2 4602565 draft PRINA248909 SAMN06040735 NA | Stenotrophomonas | genosp4 | Y | B4 | 180 | 4334733 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN03753636 | GCF_001276355.1 | NA |
| Semotrophomona | Stenotrophomonas | genosp4 | N | IAM_12423 | 9 | 4144460 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN04487782 | GCF_900113425.1 | NA |
| Semotrophomonos genosp4 Y SmCVFa1 30 4264176 draft PRJNA323845 SAMN05190067 NA | Stenotrophomonas | genosp4 | N | isolate_SIDR01 | 2 | 4602565 | draft | PRJNA248909 | SAMN06040735 | | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas genosp5 Y 13146 60 4444179 draft PRINA224116 SAMNO7237143 GCE_002205165.1 NA Stenotrophomonas genosp5 Y BR12 80 4405362 draft PRINA224116 SAMN03456145 GCE_000972335.1 26472823 Stenotrophomonas genosp5 Y HMSC10F06 63 4114905 draft PRINA344031 SAMN03287020 NA Stenotrophomonas genosp5 Y LM091 1 4317450 complete PRINA344031 SAMN03818440 NA Stenotrophomonas genosp5 Y PML168 97 4403876 draft PRINA24416 SAMR03701688 227014232 227014232 Stenotrophomonas ginsengisoli N DSM_18929 92 4122049 draft PRINA284363 SAMN03701670 CCE_00106325.1 227014232 Stenotrophomonas Amatophilia N 1149_SMAL 235 4847430 draft PRINA224116 SAMN03701670 CCE_00106925.1 26230489 Steno | Stenotrophomonas | genosp4 | Y | Sm41DVV | 26 | 4139723 | draft | PRJNA323790 | SAMN05188789 | | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas genosp5 Y BR12 80 4405362 draft PRINA224116 SAMN03456145 GCF_000972335.1 26472823 Stenotrophomonas genosp5 Y HMSC10F06 63 4114905 draft PRINA269850 SAMN03287020 NA Stenotrophomonas genosp5 Y LM091 1 4317450 complete PRINA344031 SAMN05818440 NA Stenotrophomonas genosp5 Y PML168 97 4403876 draft PRJNA24416 SAMR03701688 2287661 Stenotrophomonas Jamini N DSM_18929 92 4122049 draft PRJNA284365 SAMN03701675 27014232 Stenotrophomonas Marie N DSM_17805 58 3029904 draft PRJNA24116 SAMN03701675 27014232 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 1142_SMAL 235 484730 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197105 CCF_001069955.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophi | Stenotrophomonas | genosp4 | Y | SmCVFa1 | 30 | 4264176 | draft | PRJNA323845 | SAMN05190067 | | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas genosp5 Y HMSC10F06 63 4114905 draft PRJNA269850 SAMN03287020 NA Stenotrophomonas genosp5 Y LM091 1 4317450 complete PRJNA344031 SAMN03818440 NA Stenotrophomonas genosp5 Y PML168 97 4403876 draft PRJNA24416 SAMEA2272452 GCF_000308353.1 22887661 Stenotrophomonas ginsengisoli N DSM_24757 99 3374112 draft PRJNA284375 SAMN03701675 27014232 Stenotrophomonas koreensis N DSM_17805 58 3029904 draft PRJNA22436 SAMN03701670 27014232 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 1149_SMAL 235 4847430 draft PRJNA22436 SAMN03197105 GCF_001069755.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 1162_SMAL 108 4392826 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197170 GCF_001069755.1 26230489 | Stenotrophomonas | genosp5 | Y | 13146 | 60 | 4444179 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN07237143 | GCF_002205165.1 | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas genosp5 Y LM091 1 4317450 complete PRINA344031 SAMN05818440 NA Stenotrophomonas genosp5 Y PML168 97 4403876 draft PRINA224116 SAMEA2272452 GCE_000308335.1 22887661 Stenotrophomonas ginsengisoli N DSM_24757 99 3374112 draft PRINA284363 SAMN03701668 27014232 Stenotrophomonas humi N DSM_18929 92 4122049 draft PRINA284364 SAMN03701675 27014232 Stenotrophomonas koreensis N DSM_17805 58 3029904 draft PRINA284363 SAMN03701670 27014232 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 1149_SMAL 235 4847430 draft PRINA224116 SAMN03197105 GCF_001068765.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 1162_SMAL 102 433379 draft PRINA224116 SAMN03197270 GCF_001068915.1 26230489 | Stenotrophomonas | genosp5 | Y | BR12 | 80 | 4405362 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN03456145 | GCF_000972335.1 | 26472823 |
| Stenotrophomonas genosp5 | Stenotrophomonas | genosp5 | Y | HMSC10F06 | 63 | 4114905 | draft | PRJNA269850 | SAMN03287020 | | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas ginsengisoli N DSM_24757 99 3374112 draft PRJNA284375 SAMN03701688 27014232 Stenotrophomonas humi N DSM_18929 92 4122049 draft PRJNA284364 SAMN03701675 27014232 Stenotrophomonas koreensis N DSM_17805 58 3029904 draft PRJNA284363 SAMN03701670 27014232 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 1149_SMAL 235 4847430 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197105 GCF_001068765.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 1162_SMAL 108 4392826 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197119 GCF_001068765.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 1305.rep2_SMAL 158 5024838 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197289 GCF_001069615.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 131_SMAL 71 4794818 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197286 GCF | Stenotrophomonas | genosp5 | Y | LM091 | 1 | 4317450 | complete | PRJNA344031 | SAMN05818440 | | NA |
| Stenotrophomonals Numi | Stenotrophomonas | genosp5 | Y | PML168 | 97 | 4403876 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMEA2272452 | GCF_000308335.1 | 22887661 |
| Stenotrophomonas koreensis N DSM_17805 58 3029904 draft PRJNA284363 SAMN03701670 27014232 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 1149_SMAL 235 4847430 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197105 GCF_001069295.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 1162_SMAL 108 4392826 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197119 GCF_001068915.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 1253_SMAL 102 4833739 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197220 GCF_001069615.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 131_SMAL 71 4794818 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197286 GCF_001069645.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 163919 148 4695069 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197286 GCF_001069645.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 179_SMAL 67 4533188 draft <t< td=""><td>Stenotrophomonas</td><td>ginsengisoli</td><td>N</td><td>DSM_24757</td><td>99</td><td>3374112</td><td>draft</td><td>PRJNA284375</td><td>SAMN03701688</td><td></td><td>27014232</td></t<> | Stenotrophomonas | ginsengisoli | N | DSM_24757 | 99 | 3374112 | draft | PRJNA284375 | SAMN03701688 | | 27014232 |
| Stenorophomonas maltophilia N 1149_SMAL 235 4847430 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197105 GCF_001069295.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 1162_SMAL 108 4392826 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN0319719 GCF_001068975.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 1253_SMAL 102 4833739 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197290 GCF_001068915.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 130_Step2_SMAL 158 5024838 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197290 GCF_001069645.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 131_SMAL 71 4794818 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197369 GCF_001069645.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 163919 148 4695069 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197369 GCF_001071655.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 179_SMAL 67 4533188 | Stenotrophomonas | humi | N | DSM_18929 | 92 | 4122049 | draft | PRJNA284364 | SAMN03701675 | | 27014232 |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 1162_SMAL 108 4392826 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197119 GCF_001068765.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 1253_SMAL 102 4833739 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197220 GCF_001068915.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 1305.rep2_SMAL 158 5024838 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197229 GCF_001069645.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 131_SMAL 71 4794818 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197286 GCF_01069645.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 163919 148 4695069 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197369 GCF_001071655.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 179_SMAL 67 4533188 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197369 GCF_001071655.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 424_SMAL 68 5202479< | Stenotrophomonas | koreensis | N | DSM_17805 | 58 | 3029904 | draft | PRJNA284363 | SAMN03701670 | | 27014232 |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 1253_SMAL 102 4833739 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197220 GCF_001068915.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 1305.rep2_SMAL 158 5024838 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197279 GCF_001069615.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 131_SMAL 71 4794818 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197279 GCF_001069645.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 163919 148 4695069 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197286 GCF_001071655.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 179_SMAL 67 4533188 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197369 GCF_001071655.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 22_SMAL 38 4457527 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197617 GCF_001071815.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 447_SMAL 47 4802736 <td>Stenotrophomonas</td> <td>maltophilia</td> <td>N</td> <td>1149_SMAL</td> <td>235</td> <td>4847430</td> <td>draft</td> <td>PRJNA224116</td> <td>SAMN03197105</td> <td>GCF_001069295.1</td> <td>26230489</td> | Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | 1149_SMAL | 235 | 4847430 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN03197105 | GCF_001069295.1 | 26230489 |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 1305.rep2_SMAL 158 5024838 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197279 GCF_001069615.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 131_SMAL 71 4794818 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197286 GCF_001069645.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 163919 148 4695069 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197369 GCF_001071655.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 179_SMAL 67 4533188 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197369 GCF_001071655.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 22_SMAL 38 4457527 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197412 GCF_001071815.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 424_SMAL 68 5202479 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197617 GCF_001072915.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 447_SMAL 47 4802736 | Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | 1162_SMAL | 108 | 4392826 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN03197119 | GCF_001068765.1 | 26230489 |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 131_SMAL 71 4794818 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197286 GCF_001069645.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 163919 148 4695069 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN07237142 GCF_002205175.1 NA Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 179_SMAL 67 4533188 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197369 GCF_001071655.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 22_SMAL 38 4457527 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197412 GCF_001071815.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 424_SMAL 68 5202479 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197617 GCF_001072915.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 447_SMAL 47 4802736 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197640 GCF_001073115.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 453_SMAL 28 4779898 | Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | 1253_SMAL | 102 | 4833739 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN03197220 | GCF_001068915.1 | 26230489 |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 163919 148 4695069 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN07237142 GCF_002205175.1 NA Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 179_SMAL 67 4533188 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197369 GCF_001071615.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 22_SMAL 38 4457527 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197412 GCF_001071815.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 424_SMAL 68 5202479 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197617 GCF_001072915.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 447_SMAL 47 4802736 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197640 GCF_001073115.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 453_SMAL 28 4779898 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197645 GCF_001073045.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 517_SMAL 108 4569872 <td< td=""><td>Stenotrophomonas</td><td>maltophilia</td><td>N</td><td>1305.rep2_SMAL</td><td>158</td><td>5024838</td><td>draft</td><td>PRJNA224116</td><td>SAMN03197279</td><td>GCF_001069615.1</td><td>26230489</td></td<> | Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | 1305.rep2_SMAL | 158 | 5024838 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN03197279 | GCF_001069615.1 | 26230489 |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 179_SMAL 67 4533188 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197369 GCF_001071655.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 22_SMAL 38 4457527 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197412 GCF_001071815.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 424_SMAL 68 5202479 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197617 GCF_001072915.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 447_SMAL 47 4802736 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197640 GCF_001071115.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 453_SMAL 28 4779898 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197645 GCF_001073045.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 517_SMAL 108 4569872 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197711 GCF_001073225.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 53 127 4637887 draft | Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | 131_SMAL | 71 | 4794818 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN03197286 | GCF_001069645.1 | 26230489 |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 22_SMAL 38 4457527 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197412 GCF_001071815.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 424_SMAL 68 5202479 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197617 GCF_001072915.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 447_SMAL 47 4802736 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197640 GCF_001071115.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 453_SMAL 28 4779898 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197645 GCF_001073045.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 517_SMAL 108 4569872 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197711 GCF_001073225.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 53 127 4637887 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03067892 25883296 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 594 119 4484627 draft PRJNA224116 | Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | 163919 | 148 | 4695069 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN07237142 | GCF_002205175.1 | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 424_SMAL 68 5202479 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197617 GCF_001072915.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 447_SMAL 47 4802736 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197640 GCF_001071115.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 453_SMAL 28 4779898 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197645 GCF_001073045.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 517_SMAL 108 4569872 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197711 GCF_001073225.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 53 127 4637887 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03067892 25883296 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 594 119 4484627 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN07237146 GCF_00220529515.1 NA Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 7141307 129 4725889 draft PRJNA224116 <td>Stenotrophomonas</td> <td>maltophilia</td> <td>N</td> <td>179_SMAL</td> <td>67</td> <td>4533188</td> <td>draft</td> <td>PRJNA224116</td> <td>SAMN03197369</td> <td>GCF_001071655.1</td> <td>26230489</td> | Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | 179_SMAL | 67 | 4533188 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN03197369 | GCF_001071655.1 | 26230489 |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 447_SMAL 47 4802736 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197640 GCF_001071115.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 453_SMAL 28 4779898 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197645 GCF_001073045.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 517_SMAL 108 4569872 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197711 GCF_001073225.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 53 127 4637887 draft PRJNA260977 SAMN03067892 25883296 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 594 119 4484627 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN07237146 GCF_002205215.1 NA Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 7141307 129 4725889 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN07237141 GCF_002205295.1 NA Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 860_SMAL 266 4466361 draft PRJNA224116 | Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | 22_SMAL | 38 | 4457527 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN03197412 | GCF_001071815.1 | 26230489 |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 453_SMAL 28 4779898 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197645 GCF_001073045.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 517_SMAL 108 4569872 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197711 GCF_001073225.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 53 127 4637887 draft PRJNA260977 SAMN03067892 25883296 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 594 119 4484627 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN07237146 GCF_002205215.1 NA Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 7141307 129 4725889 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03198069 GCF_002205295.1 NA Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 860_SMAL 266 4466361 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03198069 GCF_001074685.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 862_SMAL 238 4445747 draft PRJNA224116 | Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | 424_SMAL | 68 | 5202479 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN03197617 | GCF_001072915.1 | 26230489 |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 517_SMAL 108 4569872 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03197711 GCF_001073225.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 53 127 4637887 draft PRJNA260977 SAMN03067892 25883296 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 594 119 4484627 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN07237146 GCF_002205215.1 NA Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 7141307 129 4725889 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03198069 GCF_002205295.1 NA Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 860_SMAL 266 4466361 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03198069 GCF_001074685.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 862_SMAL 238 4445747 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03198070 GCF_001074705.1 26230489 | Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | 447_SMAL | 47 | 4802736 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN03197640 | GCF_001071115.1 | 26230489 |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 53 127 4637887 draft PRJNA260977 SAMN03067892 25883296 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 594 119 4484627 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN07237146 GCF_002205215.1 NA Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 7141307 129 4725889 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN07237141 GCF_002205295.1 NA Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 860_SMAL 266 4466361 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03198069 GCF_001074685.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 862_SMAL 238 4445747 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03198070 GCF_001074705.1 26230489 | Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | 453_SMAL | 28 | 4779898 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN03197645 | GCF_001073045.1 | 26230489 |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 594 119 4484627 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN07237146 GCF_002205215.1 NA Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 7141307 129 4725889 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN07237141 GCF_002205295.1 NA Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 860_SMAL 266 4466361 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03198069 GCF_001074685.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 862_SMAL 238 4445747 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03198070 GCF_001074705.1 26230489 | Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | 517_SMAL | 108 | 4569872 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN03197711 | GCF_001073225.1 | 26230489 |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 7141307 129 4725889 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN07237141 GCF_002205295.1 NA Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 860_SMAL 266 4466361 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03198069 GCF_001074685.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 862_SMAL 238 4445747 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03198070 GCF_001074705.1 26230489 | Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | 53 | 127 | 4637887 | draft | PRJNA260977 | SAMN03067892 | | 25883296 |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 860_SMAL 266 4466361 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03198069 GCF_001074685.1 26230489 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 862_SMAL 238 4445747 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03198070 GCF_001074705.1 26230489 | Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | 594 | 119 | 4484627 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN07237146 | GCF_002205215.1 | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 862_SMAL 238 4445747 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03198070 GCF_001074705.1 26230489 | Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | 7141307 | 129 | 4725889 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN07237141 | GCF_002205295.1 | NA |
| | Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | 860_SMAL | 266 | 4466361 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN03198069 | GCF_001074685.1 | 26230489 |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N 951_SMAL 259 4814445 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03198171 GCF_001075475.1 26230489 | Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | 862_SMAL | 238 | 4445747 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN03198070 | GCF_001074705.1 | 26230489 |
| | Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | 951_SMAL | 259 | 4814445 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN03198171 | GCF_001075475.1 | 26230489 |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N AA1 1 4663337 complete PRJNA224116 SAMN06130959 GCF_002025605.1 28275097 | Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | AA1 | 1 | 4663337 | complete | PRJNA224116 | SAMN06130959 | GCF_002025605.1 | 28275097 |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N Ab55555 6 4918930 draft PRJNA164599 SAMN02596924 NA | Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | Ab55555 | 6 | 4918930 | draft | PRJNA164599 | SAMN02596924 | | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N As1 33 4394082 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN03491122 GCF_001051925.1 26966198 | Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | As1 | 33 | 4394082 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN03491122 | GCF_001051925.1 | 26966198 |
| Stenotrophomonas maltophilia N ATCC_13637 182 4951541 draft PRJNA224116 SAMN05721779 GCF_001997185.1 NA | Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | ATCC_13637 | 182 | 4951541 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN05721779 | GCF_001997185.1 | NA |

| | | 1 | I | | | 1 | | | 1 | |
|------------------|-----------------|----|---------------|-----|---------|------------|----------------|-----------------|-----------------|----------|
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | ATCC_19867 | 14 | 4424025 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN02441648 | GCF_000382065.1 | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | AU12-09 | 125 | 4547300 | draft | PRJNA174752 | SAMN02469852 | | 23640378 |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | B418 | 231 | 4688249 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN03161950 | GCF_000788095.1 | 25700397 |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | BurA1 | 64 | 4360660 | draft | PRJEB8824 | SAMEA3309460 | | 26276674 |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | BurE1 | 48 | 4504590 | draft | PRJEB8824 | SAMEA3309461 | | 26276674 |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | C11 | 242 | 4770820 | draft | PRJNA285410 | SAMN03753638 | | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | CBF10-1 | 115 | 4556616 | draft | PRJNA312840 | SAMN04507546 | | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | D457 | 1 | 4769156 | complete | PRJEA89665 | SAMEA2272378 | | 22689246 |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | Y | DDT-1 | 97 | 4514569 | draft | PRJNA286061 | SAMN03764479 | | 26888254 |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | DT1 | 64 | 4526952 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN05915699 | GCF_001866065.1 | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | EPM1 | 1 | 4787769 | chromosome | PRJNA224116 | SAMN02471395 | GCF_000344215.1 | 23599297 |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | FDAARGOS_325 | 1 | 4851139 | complete | PRJNA224116 | SAMN06173338 | GCF_002208885.1 | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | Y | HMSC10F07 | 158 | 4491970 | draft | PRJNA269851 | SAMN03287021 | | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | ISMMS2 | 1 | 4509724 | complete | PRJNA277366 | SAMN03389647 | | 26324280 |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | ISMMS3 | 1 | 4804002 | complete | PRJNA277366 | SAMN03389650 | | 26324280 |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | ISMMS4 | 3 | 4752108 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN03389651 | GCF_001275085.1 | 26324280 |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | ISMMS5 | 18 | 4784825 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN03389652 | GCF_001275075.1 | 26324280 |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | ISMMS6 | 10 | 4832466 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN03389653 | GCF_001275095.1 | 26324280 |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | ISMMS7 | 2 | 4702773 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN03389654 | GCF_001651505.1 | 26324280 |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | JV3 | 1 | 4544477 | complete | PRJNA53943 | SAMN02261377 | _ | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | K279a | 1 | 4851126 | complete | PRJNA30351 | SAMEA1705934 | | 18419807 |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | LMG_22072 | 173 | 4512166 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN04207869 | GCF_001431675.1 | 27014232 |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | LMG_978 | 109 | 4484616 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN04207868 | GCF_001431665.1 | 27014232 |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | M30 | 193 | 4902008 | draft | PRJNA235918 | SAMN02592618 | GCI_001451005.1 | 24926059 |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | Y | MB339 | 262 | 4897648 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN06176942 | GCF_001974685.1 | NA |
| | | | OC194 | 202 | 4688045 | draft | | | | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | | | | | PRJNA224116 | SAMN04041569 | GCF_001297005.1 | |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | OUC_Est10 | 1 | 4668743 | complete | PRJNA224116 | SAMN04992827 | GCF_002138415.1 | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | PG157 | 76 | 4949420 | draft | PRJNA295129 | SAMN04260440 | CCF 000000051 | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | R551-3 | 1 | 4573969 | complete | PRJNA224116 | SAMN00623065 | GCF_000020665.1 | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | R5G | 79 | 4992669 | draft | PRJNA329467 | SAMN05413110 | | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | RR-10 | 158 | 4660562 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN02471024 | GCF_000237025.1 | 22328769 |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | SBo1 | 23 | 4800701 | draft | PRJNA326914 | SAMN05294119 | | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | Y | SKA14 | 3 | 5020454 | draft | PRJNA19369 | SAMN02436221 | | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | Sm32COP | 45 | 4548960 | draft | PRJNA323771 | SAMN05188742 | | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | SmF22 | 64 | 4583062 | draft | PRJNA323842 | SAMN05190064 | | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | SmF3 | 77 | 4595297 | draft | PRJNA323803 | SAMN05189120 | | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | SmSOFb1 | 93 | 4483386 | draft | PRJNA323844 | SAMN05190066 | | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | stmalt0377 | 120 | 4620840 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMEA3138820 | GCF_000499565.1 | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | Y | TD3 | 10 | 4917215 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN05898096 | GCF_001939825.1 | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | UV74 | 179 | 4889583 | draft | PRJNA261822 | SAMN03076212 | | 26067959 |
| Stenotrophomonas | maltophilia | N | WJ66 | 75 | 4657282 | draft | PRJNA229185 | SAMN03334939 | | 25654114 |
| Stenotrophomonas | nitritireducens | Y | Leaf70 | 11 | 4032657 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN04151613 | GCF_001422025.1 | 26633631 |
| Stenotrophomonas | nitritireducens | N | 2001 | 1 | 4541729 | complete | PRJNA224116 | SAMN05428703 | GCF_001700965.1 | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas | nitritireducens | N | DSM_12575 | 95 | 3983487 | draft | PRJNA284361 | SAMN03701629 | | 27014232 |
| Stenotrophomonas | panacihumi | N | JCM_16536 | 141 | 3923155 | draft | PRJNA299448 | SAMN04207867 | | 27014232 |
| Stenotrophomonas | pavanii | N | DSM_25135 | 129 | 4313798 | draft | PRJNA284376 | SAMN03701690 | | 27014232 |
| Stenotrophomonas | pavanii | N | LMG_25348 | 17 | 4424001 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN04487784 | GCF_900101175.1 | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas | pictorum | N | JCM_9942 | 829 | 3508292 | draft | PRJNA299446 | SAMN04207798 | GCF_001310775.1 | 27014232 |
| Stenotrophomonas | rhizophila | N | DSM_14405 | 1 | 4648976 | complete | PRJNA244760 | SAMN02727981 | | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas | rhizophila | N | QL-P4 | 1 | 4198652 | complete | PRJNA326321 | SAMN05276013 | | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas | sp. | Y | SO28 | 297 | 3754755 | draft | PRJNA224116 | SAMN02469568 | GCF_000295735.1 | 23144428 |
| Stenotrophomonas | terrae | Y | KCTC_12332 | 1 | 4541594 | complete | PRJNA310387 | SAMN04451766 | | NA |
| Stenotrophomonas | terrae | N | DSM_18941 | 143 | 4410319 | draft | PRJNA284366 | SAMN03701677 | | 27014232 |
| Xanthomonas | arboricola | N | pvcelebensis | 3 | 4908017 | draft | PRJNA254393 | SAMN02903333 | | NA NA |
| | ar porticola | ., | PACCICOCIISIS | 9 | -2000I/ | unut | * 101117574737 | 011111102003333 | | 1721 |

| Xanthomonas | axonopodis | N | pvcitri_str306 | 3 | 5274174 | complete | PRJNA297 | SAMN02603846 | 12024217 |
|-------------|------------|---|----------------|---|---------|----------|-------------|--------------|----------|
| Xanthomonas | campestris | N | ATCC_33913 | 1 | 5076188 | complete | | | 12024217 |
| Xanthomonas | citri | N | subspcitri | 3 | 5222287 | complete | PRJNA255042 | SAMN02911839 | 25689023 |
| Xanthomonas | oryzae | N | pvoryzae_PXO86 | 1 | 5016623 | complete | PRJNA237250 | SAMN02616002 | NA |
| Xanthomonas | oryzae | N | pvoryzicola | 1 | 4790622 | complete | PRJNA280380 | SAMN03612248 | NA |
| Xanthomonas | sacchari | N | | 2 | 5006106 | complete | PRJNA271115 | SAMN03273272 | NA |

- 3. Supplementary code snippets, as examples on how to run a selection of the auxiliary scripts distributed in the GET_PHYLOMARKERS package.
- # 1. Launch parallel IQ-TREE runs on all alignments with "fasta" extension name present in the current directory to find best-fitting model from the specified model set and then estimate the ML phylogeny using the -fast mode implented in verstion 1.6.1. Estimate SH-alrt branch support values during the search.

```
run_parallel_cmmds.pl fasta 'iqtree -s $file -st DNA -mset
"HKY,TN,TVM,TIM,TIM2,TIM3,GTR" -m MFP -nt 1 -alrt 1000 -fast'
```

2. Parse the lnL scores of the gene-trees the lnL scores of the gene-trees found by IQ-TREE and write them to a file with tab-separated values format.

```
grep '^BEST SCORE' *log | sort -nrk5 | cut -d: -f1,3 | perl -pe 's/\h+/\t/; s/://'
> sorted_IQT_lnL_mset_gene_trees.tsv
```

3. Launch parallel FastTree runs on all alignments with "fasta" extension name present in the current directory using default tree search intensity and parse the lnL scores of the resulting gene-trees.

```
run_parallel_cmmds.pl fasta 'FastTree -nt -gtr -gamma -slow -slownni -spr 16
-sprlength 10 -log ${file%.*}_FT.log < $file > ${file%.*}_FTGTRG.ph'
grep '^Gamma20LogLk' *defFT.log | cut -f1,2 | sed 's/:Gamma20LogLk//; s/ /\t/' >
FT lnL defFT.tsv
```

4 Compute the average support values and Robinson-Foulds distances of gene trees to a species-tree

```
compute_suppValStas_and_RF-dist.R '/full/path/to/genetrees/' 1 fasta ph 1
```

5. Run multiple iqtree searches on the concatenated supermatrix using the best substitution model on multiple nodes by launching 50 subshels. (This was run on a 64 core server with 0.5 Tb of RAM).

```
for rep in {1..50}
do
    nohup nice iqtree -s concat_cdnAlns.fnainf -st DNA -m GTR+F+ASC+R6 -abayes -nt 1
-pre abayes_run${rep} &> /dev/null &
done
```

```
# 6. Parse FastTree InL scores and computation times from logfiles (multiple independent runs)
grep '^Gamma20LogLk' *FTGTRG_slow_slownni_sprl10_spr10.log | cut -f1,2 | sed \
    's/:Gamma20LogLk//; s/ /\t/' > FT_lnL_cdnAln_FTGTRG_slow_slownni_sprl10_spr10.tsv

grep '^Total time:' *FTGTRG_slow_slownni_sprl10_spr10.log | cut -d' ' -f3 \
    > FT_total_wall_clock_seconds_cdnAln_FTGTRG_slow_slownni_sprl10_spr10.tsv

# 7. Parse IQ-TREE InL scores and computation times from logfiles
grep '^BEST SCORE' *log | sort -nrk5 | cut -d: -f1,3 | perl -pe 's/\h+/\t/; s/://'
    > sorted_IQT_lnL_mset_gene_trees.tsv

grep '^BEST SCORE' *log | cut -d: -f1,3 | perl -pe 's/\h+/\t/; s/://' >
    sorted_by_FILE_NAME_lnL_mset_gene_trees.tsv

grep 'Total wall-clock' *log | cut -d: -f1,3 | perl -pe 's/:\h+/\t/; s/\s+sec.*$//'
    > total_wall_clock_seconds_IQT_mset_MFP.tsv
```

Supplementary References

Luz Edith Ochoa-Sanchez and Pablo Vinuesa (2017). Evolutionary genetic analysis uncovers multiple species with distinct habitat preferences and antibiotic resistance phenotypes in the *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* complex. Front. Microbiol. 8: 1548. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2017.01548 | PubMed PMID: 28861062.

Anexo 6. Lista de especies pertenecientes al género Stenotrophomonas

| Especie de Stenotrophomonas | Fuente | Cita | | |
|--|----------------------------------|--|--|--|
| S. maltophilia | Humano | (Palleroni and Bradbury 1993) (Denton and Kerr 1998b) | | |
| S. africana* | Humano (líquido cefalorraquídeo) | (DRANCOURT, BOLLET, and RAOULT 1997) | | |
| S. nitritireducens | Biofiltros de aguas residuales | (Finkmann, Altendorf, and Stackebrandt 2000) | | |
| S. acidaminiphila | Lodo de reactor anaeróbico | (Assih et al. 2002) | | |
| S. rhizophila | Rizosfera de papa | (Wolf et al. 2002) | | |
| S. koreensis Composta de estiércol de vaca y paja de arroz. | | (H. C. Yang et al. 2006) | | |
| S. dokdonensis | Suelo | (Yoon et al. 2006) | | |
| S. humi | Lodo de aguas residuales | (Heylen et al. 2007) | | |
| S. terrae | Lodo de aguas residuales | (Heylen et al. 2007) | | |
| S. chelatiphaga | Lodo de aguas residuales | (Kaparullina et al. 2009) | | |
| S. ginsengisoli | Suelo de cultivo de ginseng | (H. Bin Kim et al. 2010) | | |
| S. daejeonensis | Aguas residuales | (M. Lee et al. 2011) | | |
| S. pavannii | Tallos de caña de azúcar | (Ramos et al. 2011) | | |
| S. tumulicola | Pinturas de murales antiguos | Handa et al. 2016 | | |
| S. bentonitica | Bentonita | (Sánchez-Castro et al. 2017) | | |
| S. pictorum | Suelo | Ouattara et al. 2017 | | |

^{*}S. africana se reclasifico como S. maltophilia

Anexo 7. Métodos de tipificación epidemiológica molecular utilizados en Stenotrophomonas

| Técnica | Elemento genético | Aplicación | Cita |
|--|---|--|---|
| | Métodos basado | s en fragmentos | |
| McRAPD | Todo el genoma | Moderado poder de discriminación y buen nivel de tipificación epidemiológica a nivel local. | (Nemec et al. 2011) |
| Rep-PCR (ERIC- PCR, BOX-PCR y REP-PCR) | Todo el genoma, especialmente en secuencias localizadas entre secuencias repetidas. | Identificación a nivel local y global de clonas y estudios de estructura de la población. | (Lin et al. 2008) (Gülmez and Hasçelik 2005) |
| PFGE | Todo el genoma | Excelente poder de discriminación y tipificación que es utilizada en investigación a escala local y global. | (Al-Jasser 2006) (Pompilio et al. 2011) |
| AFLP | Todo el genoma | Identificación de especies de Stenotrophomonas | (Hauben et al. 1999) |
| MLVA | Polimorfismo genético dentro de <i>loci</i> VNTR | Buen nivel de tipificación y moderado poder discriminatorio. | (Roscetto et al. 2008) |
| | Métodos basados en s | ecuenciación | |
| MLST | Polimorfismo en siete genes <i>housekeeping</i> | Excelente poder de discriminación y tipificación utilizado en investigación a nivel global y de estructura de la población. | (Kaiser, Biehler, and Jonas 2009) |
| RFLP y secuenciación de <i>gyrB</i> | Polimorfismo en un gen <i>housekeeping</i> | Buen poder discriminatorio y tipificación a nivel de especie. | (Svensson-Stadler, Mihaylova, and Moore 2012) (Coenye et al. 2004) |

AFLP: Polimorfismo de longitud de fragmento amplificado; MLST: tipificación de secuencia de multilocus; MLVA: Análisis multi-locus de número variable de repeticiones en tándem; PFGE: electroforesis en gel de campo pulsado; McRAPD: curva de fusión de amplificación aleatoria de ADN; Rep-PCR: PCR basada en secuencias repetitivas; RFLP: polimorfismo de longitud de los fragmentos de restricción.

Anexo 8. Genómica comparada del género Stenotrophomonas

| Actividad | Compuesto o actividad | Gene, locus tag, proteína o compuesto | Сера | Origen | Referencia |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|---|--|
| | 17β-estradiols[p] | ND | S. maltophilia ZL1 | Lodo activo | (Z. Li et al. 2012) |
| | Endosulfan | ND | S. maltophilia | Suelo contaminado | (K. Kumar et al. 2007) |
| | DDT | ND | S. maltophilia | Rizosfera | (Barragán-Huerta et al. 2007) |
| | DDT | ND | Stenotrophomonas sp. | Suelo contaminado con pesticida | (Mwangi et al. 2010) |
| | Tricloroetileno | tce300 y tce350 | S. maltophilia PM102 | Suelo industrial | (Mukherjee and Roy 2013) |
| | Clorpirifos | Mpd | S. maltophilia MHF ENV20 | Rizosfera | (Dubey y Fulekar, 2012) |
| | Colorantes | Сора | S. maltophilia AAP56 | Suelo | (Galai, Limam, and Marzouki 2009) |
| Degradación de | Fenantreno | ND | S. maltophilia C-6 | Suelo contaminado | (Gao et al. 2013) |
| xenobióticos | Queratina | Serina proteasa y disulfuro reductasa | Stenotrophomonas sp D-1 | Piel de venado | (Yamamura et al. 2002) |
| | RDX | ND | S. maltophilia PB1 | Suelo contaminado | (Binks, Nicklin, and Bruce 1995) |
| | Geosmina | ND | Stenotrophomonas sp. | Carbono biológicamente activo | (Zhou et al., 2011) |
| | Atrazina | atzA, atzB, atzC y trzD | , atzB, atzC y trzD S. maltophilia Suelo de cultivos | | (Rousseaux, Hartmann, and Soulas 2001) |
| | <i>p</i> -nitrofenol | ND | Stenotrophomonas sp LZ-1 | Lodo activado | (Edwards, Liu, and Pearl 2007) |
| | Hidrocarburos monocíclicos | Dioxigenasa | S. maltophilia KB2 | Lodo activado | (Urszula et al. 2009) |
| | Cr | Stemr_2019 | S. maltophilia R551-3 | Rizosfera | (Ryan et al. 2009) |
| | Cu | ND | S. maltophilia PD2 | Suelo contaminado | (Ghosh and Saha 2013) |
| D: | Cu | Stemr_3152-54 | S. maltophilia R551-3 | Rizosfera | (Ryan et al., 2009) |
| Biorremediación | Ar | Stmr_2020-2024 | S. maltophilia R551-3 | Rizosfera | (Ryan et al., 2009) |
| de metales pesados | Te | Stmr_2893-94 | S. maltophilia R551-3 | Rizosfera | (Ryan et al., 2009) |
| pesauos | Se | Glutatión reductasa | S. maltophilia SeITE02 | Suelo contaminado | (Antonioli et al. 2007) |
| | Pb, Zn y Ni | ND | S. maltophilia | Planta de tratamiento de aguas residuales | (Wierzba 2015) |

Anexo 8. Genómica comparada del género Stenotrophomonas

| Actividad | | Compuesto o actividad | Gene, locus tag, proteína o compuesto | Сера | Origen | Referencia | |
|-------------------------------|-----------|------------------------------|---|--|------------------------|--|---------------------|
| | | Larvicida | Biosurfactante | S. maltophilia | Suelo contaminado | (Deepali, Sneha, and Sucheta 2014) | |
| | | Antifúngico | Quitinasa, proteasa | S. maltophilia PB3533 | Rizosfera | (Messiha et al. 2007) | |
| | | Antifúngico | Quitinasa, proteasa | S. maltophilia W81 | Rizosfera | (Dunne et al. 2017) | |
| | | Antifúngico | Xhantobaccina A, B y C | Stenotrophomonas sp. SB- K88 | Rizosfera | (Nakayama et al. 1999) | |
| Dia a a su tura l | | Antifúngico | ND | S. maltophilia | Raíz | (Kwok et al. 1987) | |
| Biocontrol | | Antifúngico | ND | S. maltophilia | Rizosfera | (Lambert et al. 1987) | |
| | | Antifúngico | Maltopilina | S. maltophilia R3089 | Rizosfera | (Jakobi et al. 1996) | |
| | | Antifúngico | Enzimas líticas | S. maltophilia | Rizosfera | (Berg, Marten, and Ballin 1996) | |
| | | Antifúngico | Quitinasa | S. maltophilia MUJ | Rizosfera | (Jankiewicz, Brzezinska, and Saks 2012) | |
| | | Antimicrobiano | ND | Stenotrophomonas sp. | Esponja y erizo de mar | (Romanenko et al. 2008) | |
| , | | Fitohormona | IAA | S. maltophilia AVP27 | Rizosfera | (N. P. Kumar and Audipudi 2015) | |
| crecimiento | del de | Fitohormona | IAA, ácido giberélico, ácido abscísico | S. maltophilia SSA | Raíz | (Naz and Bano 2012) | |
| plantas | | Antioxidante | Flavonoides y Isoflavonoides | S. maltophilia N5.18 | Rizosfera | (Algar et al. 2013) | |
| | | Hidrólisis de zeína | Serina proteasa alcalina | S. maltophilia S-1 | Suelo | (Miyaji et al. 2005) | |
| Catálisis | | Sustratos con hidroxiprolina | Dipeptidil aminopeptidasa IV | S. maltophilia DPIV | ND | (Nakajima et al. 2008) | |
| | | Monooxigenasa | Flavoproteína clase B | S. maltophilia PML169 | Mar | (Willetts et al. 2012) | |
| | | Estreptomicina | Smlt2336 | S. maltophilia K279a | Humano | (Ryan et al. 2009) | |
| | | Espectinomicina | Smlt2125 | S. maltophilia K279a | Humano | (Ryan et al., 2009) | |
| Resistencia a antibióticos | а | а | Aminoglucósidos | Smlt0191 Smlt1669 Smlt2120 Smlt2336 Smlt3615 | S. maltophilia K279a | Humano | (Ryan et al., 2009) |
| | | Cloranfenicol | cat | S. maltophilia K279a | Humano | (Ryan et al., 2009) | |
| | | Fluoroquinolona | qnrB | S. maltophilia K279a | Humano | (Ryan et al., 2009) | |
| | | Macrólidos | Smlt0032 Smlt1537-9 Smlt2642-3 | S. maltophilia K279a | Humano | (Ryan et al., 2009) | |
| | | β-lactamicos | blaL1-blaL2 | S. maltophilia K279a | Humano | (Ryan et al., 2009) | |

Anexo 9. Lista de especies de Acinetobacter que han sido reportadas y fueron identificadas en nuestro estudio

| Especie de Acinetobacter | Fuente ambiental | Cita |
|--------------------------|-------------------------------|--|
| A. tandoii | Lodo activado | (Carr et al. 2003) |
| A. schindleri | Humano | (Nemec et al. 2001) |
| A. johnsonii | Humano, gallina, agua y ratón | (Bouvet and Grimont 1986) |
| A. bereziniae | Humano, conejo | (Nemec et al. 2010) |
| A. soli | Suelo forestal | (D. Kim et al. 2008) |
| A. baumannii | Humano | (Bouvet and Grimont 1986) |
| A. pittii | Humano | (Nemec et al. 2011) |
| A. oleivorans | Suelo de arroz | (Kang et al. 2011) |
| A. junii | Humano | (Bouvet and Grimont 1986) |
| A. beijerinckii | Humano | (Nemec et al. 2009) |
| A. lactucae | Lechuga | (Rooney, Dunlap, and Flor-Weiler 2016) |

Anexo 10. Métodos de tipificación epidemiológica molecular que se han utilizado en Acinetobacter

| Técnica | Elemento genético | Aplicación | Cita |
|--|--|---|---|
| | Métodos basad | os en fragmentos | |
| Esquema de tipificación de replicones por PCR | Plásmido | Determinación del pan plasmidoma de Acinetobacter, plásmidos circulantes y evolución de los genes de resistencia. | (Bertini et al. 2010) |
| RAPD | Todo el genoma | Identificación epidemiológica a nivel local. | (Grundmann et al. 1997) |
| Rep-PCR | Todo el genoma, especialmente en secuencias localizadas entre secuencias repetidas. | Identificación a nivel local y global de la clona y estudios de estructura de la población. | (Reboli et al. 1994) (Higgins et al. 2009) |
| Ribotyping | rDNA y región flanqueante | Identificación del complejo A. baumannii, clona y en menor medida a nivel de cepa epidémica. | (Nemec et al. 2004) (Dijkshoorn et al. 1996) |
| PFGE | Todo el genoma | Investigación a escala local y global. | (Harald Seifert et al. 2005) |
| AFLP | Todo el genoma | Identificación de especies de Acinetobacter, epidemiologia a nivel molecular | (Nemec et al. 2004) |
| MLVA | Polimorfismo genético dentro de <i>loci</i> VNTR | Tipificación epidemiológica a nivel de cepas estrechamente relacionadas | (Pourcel et al. 2011) (Turton et al. 2009) (Hauck et al. 2012) (Hu et al. 2013 |
| | Métodos basado | s en secuenciación | |
| SLST | Polimorfismo en la secuencia de un <i>locus</i> (<i>adeB, rpoB, recA, bla</i> _{OXA-51-like)} | Tipificación preliminar y asignación de aislados a clonas establecidas internacionalmente. | (Villalón et al. 2011) (Huys, Cnockaert, Nemec, et al. 2005) (Scola et al. 2006) (Turton et al. 2007) |
| 3-LSD | Polimorfismo en tres <i>loci</i> (<i>ompA</i> , <i>csuE</i> , <i>bla</i> _{OXA-51}) | Estudios de estructura de la población | |
| MLST | Polimorfismo en siete genes housekeeping | Estructura de la población | (Diancourt et a 2010) (Bartual et al. 2005) |
| PCR-ESI/MS | Polimorfismo en nueve fragmentos internos de seis genes housekeeping | Identificación y genotipificación a nivel de clona y en menor medida a nivel de cepa, estudios de estructura de la población y determinación de resistencia a antibióticos. | (Ecker et al. 2006) |

³⁻LST: tipificación de secuencia de 3 locus; AFLP: Polimorfismo en la longitud del fragmento amplificado; MLST: tipificación de secuencia de multilocus; MLVA: Análisis multi-locus de número variable de repeticiones en tándem; PCR / ESI-MS: espectrometría de masas por ionización por electropulverización / PCR Multilocus; PFGE: electroforesis en gel de campo pulsado; RAPD: amplificacion aleatoria de ADN; Rep-PCR: PCR basada en secuencias repetitivas; SLST: mecanografía basada en secuencias de un solo locus; VNTR: repetición en tándem de número variable.

Anexo 11. Genómica comparado del género *Acinetobacter*

| Función | Compuesto o actividad | Gene o proteína | Сера | Origen | Referencia |
|---------------------------|---|-----------------------|--------------------------------------|------------------|---|
| | Poliacrilamida | ND | Acinetobacter sp. 11 | Suelo | (Matsuoka et al. 2002) |
| | QACs | ND | Acinetobacter spp. | Aguas residuales | (Al-Ahmad et al. 2000) |
| | Fenol | ND | Acinetobacter sp. W-17 | Aguas residuales | (Beshay et al. 2002) |
| | Ketoadipato | рсаН | Acinetobacter sp | Marisma | (Buchan, Neidle, and Moran 2001) |
| | Tolueno | ND | Acinetobacter calcuaceticus RAG-1 | Suelo | (Chamanrokh et al. 2008) |
| | Diesel | ND | Acinetobacter sp. | Suelo | (Gallego et al. 2001) |
| Degradación | Colorantes | Lignina peroxidasa | Acinetobacter calcoaceticus NCIM | NCIM | (Ghodake et al. 2009) |
| de | Hexadecano | ND | Acinetobacter sp | Suelo | (Gomez et al. 2011) |
| xenobióticos | Anilina | catRBCAD | Acinetobacter iwoffii K24 | Suelo | (S. Il Kim, Yoo, and Kahng 2001) |
| | Aceite mineral | ND | Acinetobacter calcuaceticus TM-31 | Agua | (Pleshakova, Muratova, and Turkovskaya 2001) |
| | Benceno | Alcalin lipasa | Acinetobacter baylyi | Lodo | (Uttatree, Winayanuwattikun, and Charoenpanich 2010) |
| | Fenol | mphKLMNOP | Acinetobacter calcuaceticus PHEA-2 | Agua | (Xu et al. 2003) |
| | Benzoato | benMABCDEKP | Acinetobacter calcuaceticus PHEA-2 | Suelo | (Zhan et al. 2008) |
| Resistencia a metales | Co, Cu, Hg, Zn, Cd, Cr, Bi, Ag, As, Sb, Mo, Se, W, Sn, Ni, Li, Al. | ND | Acinetobacter genoespecie3 | Suelo | (Dhakephalkar and Chopade 1994) |
| pesados | Ag | Lignina peroxidasa | Acinetobacter sp MCC 3391 | Rizosfera | (Singh et al. 2017) |
| Promoción del | IAA | ND | <i>Acinetobacter</i> spp | Suelo | (Kuklinsky-Sobral et al. 2004) |
| crecimiento de plantas | Aumento de biomasa | ND | Acinetobacter baumannii CD-1 | Suelo | (Dursun, Ekinci, and Dönmez 2010) |

Anexo 11. Genómica comparado del género *Acinetobacter*

| Función | Compuesto o actividad | Gene o proteína | Сера | Origen | Referencia |
|---------------|---|-----------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------|---|
| | Ethapolan | ND | Acinetobacter sp IMV B-7005 | Suelo | (Pirog, Vysyatetskaya, and Korzh 2007) |
| | Ethapolan | ND | Acinetobacter sp 12S | Suelo | (Pirog, Kovalenko, and Kuz 2002) |
| | Cianoficina | CphA | Acinetobacter sp ADPI | DSMZ | (Krehenbrink, Oppermann-Sanio, and Steinbüchel 2002) |
| | Microdiesesl | Acetiltranferasa | Acinetobacte baylyi ADPI | Suelo | (Kalscheuer, Stölting, and Steinbüchel 2006) |
| Catálisis | Emulsan | ND | Acinetobacter calcoaceticus RAG-1 | Suelo | (Johri, Blank, and Kaplan 2002) (Chamanrokh et al. 2008) |
| | Lipasa | Alcalin lipasa | Acinetobacter radioresistens | Lodo de aguas residuales | (C. Y. Li et al. 2005) |
| | Lipasa | Alcalin lipasa | Acinetobacter sp ES-1 | Lodo activo | (K. W. Lee et al. 2006) |
| | Lipasa | Alcalin lipasa | Acinetobacter hemolyticus | Suelo | (Jagtap et al. 2010) |
| | Lipasa | Alcalin lipasa | Acinetobacter radioresistens | Lodo de aguas residuales | (Chen, Cheng, and Chen 1998) |
| | Biosurfactante | ND | Acinetobacter spp | Mar | (Satpute et al. 2008) |
| | Biosurfactante | ND | Acinetobacter johnsonii O2F | Pez | (Floris et al. 2018) |
| | Penicilina, Ampicilina, Carbemicilina, Cloxacilina, Amoxicilina, Cefaloridina, Cefazolina, Estreptomicina, Kananicina, Gentamicina, Cloranfenicol. | ND | Acinetobacter genoespecie3 | Suelo | (Dhakephalkar and Chopade 1994) |
| | Meropenem | bla _{oxa-40} | Acinetobacter baumannii ACB20 | Humano | (Lolans et al. 2006) |
| | Oxitetraciclina | tet(39) | Acinetobacter spp | Sedimentos de agua | (Agersø and Petersen 2007) |
| Resistencia a | Sulfametoxazol | sull, sulll | Acinetobacter spp | Estiércol de pollo | (Agersø and Petersen 2007) |
| antibióticos | Ceftazidima | атрС | Acinetobacter baumannii* | Humano | (Corvec et al. 2003) |
| antibioticos | Ciprofloxacino, Cefepime, Imipenem, Meropenem, Cefoperazona/sulbactam, Netelmicina. | ND | Acinetobacter baumannii* | Humano | (Dizbay et al. 2008) |
| | Oxitetraciclina, Cloranfenicol, Sulfametoxazol, Gentamicina, Ciprofloxacino, Amoxicilina | ND | Acinetobacter spp | Agua | (Luca Guardabassi, Petersen, and Olsen 1998) |
| | Tetraciclina | tetA, tetB | Acinetobacter baumannii* | Humano | (L. Guardabassi et al. 2000) |
| | Tetraciclina | tetA, tetB, tetM | Acinetobacter baumannii* | Humano | (Huys, Cnockaert, Vaneechoutte, et al. 2005) |

Anexo 11. Genómica comparado del género Acinetobacter

| Función Compuesto o actividad | Gene o proteína | Сера | Origen | Referencia |
|-------------------------------|-----------------|------|--------|------------|
|-------------------------------|-----------------|------|--------|------------|

| | Carbapenemicos | bla _{OXA-40} | Acinetobacter baumannii* | Humano | (Lolans et al. 2006) |
|----------------------------|---|-----------------------|-----------------------------|--------|----------------------------------|
| Resistencia a antibióticos | Penicilina, Ampicilina, Carbenicilina, Cloxacilina, Amoxicilina, Cefaloridina, Cefazolina, Estreptomicina, Kanamicina, Gentamicina, Cloranfenicol. | ND | Acinetobacter genoespecie3 | Suelo | (Dhakephalkar and Chopade 1994) |
| | Trimetoprim | dfrA7 | Acinetobacter baumannii* | Humano | (Segal, Thomas, and Elisha 2003) |
| | Aminoglucósidos | aaC(3)-IIa | Acinetobacter baumannii* | Humano | (Segal, Thomas, and Elisha 2003) |
| | Amoxicilina, Gentamicina, Ciprofloxacina, Ticarcilina, Cefalotina. | ND | Acinetobacter calcoaceticus | Agua | (Tahrani et al. 2018) |

[•] Varios aislados; Ag. Plata; Al: Aluminio; As; Arsénico; B: Boro; Bi: Bismuto; Cd: Cadmio; Cr: Cromo; Co, Cobalto; Cu: Cobre; DSMZ: Deutsche Sammlung von Mikroorganismen und Zellkulturen; Hg: Mercurio; IAA: Ácido indolacetico Li: Litio; Mo: Molibdeno; NCIM: National Collection of Industrial Microorganisms ND: no definido; Ni: Níquel; QACs: compuestos cuaternarios de amonio; Sb: Antimonio; Se: Selenio; Sn: Estaño; W: Volfrabio y Zn:

Anexo 12. Oligonucleótidos utilizados en este estudio

| Stenotrophomonas | | | |
|------------------|--------------------------------------|----------|-------------------------|
| Oligonucleótido | Oligonucleótido Secuencia | | Referencia |
| atpD Fw | atpD Fw 5´-ATGAGTCAGGGCAAGATCGTTC-3´ | | Kaiser S. et al., 2009. |
| atpD Rv | 5'-TCCTGCAGGACGCCCATTTC-3' | 56 | Kaiser S. et al., 2009. |
| gapA Fw | 5'-TGGCAATCAAGGTTGGTATCAAC-3' | 56 | Kaiser S. et al., 2009. |
| gapA Rv | 5'-TTCGCTCTGTGCCTTCACTTC-3' | 56 | Kaiser S. et al., 2009. |
| ppsA Fw | 5'-CAAGGCGATCCGCATGGTGTATTC-3' | 62 | Kaiser S. et al., 2009. |
| ppsA Rv | 5'-CCTTCGTAGATGAARCCGGTRTC-3' | 62 | Kaiser S. et al., 2009. |
| recA Fw | 5'-ATGGACGAGAACAAGAAGCGC-3' | 56 | Kaiser S. et al., 2009. |
| recA Rv | 5'-GGTGATGACCTGCTTGAACGG-3' | 56 | Kaiser S. et al., 2009. |
| guaA Fw | 5'-AACGAAGAAAAGCGCTGGTA-3' | 56 | Kaiser S. et al., 2009. |
| guaA Rv | 5'-ACGGATGGCGGTAGACCAT-3' | 56 | Kaiser S. et al., 2009. |
| nuoD Fw | 5'-TTCGACACTACACCATGAAC-3' | 48 | Kaiser S. et al., 2009. |
| nuoD Rv | 5'-CAGCGCGACTCCTTGTACTT-3' | 48 | Kaiser S. et al., 2009. |
| mutM Fw | 5'-YTDCCCGAAGTMGAAACYAC-3' | 56 | En este estudio |
| mutM Rv | 5'-GCAGYTCCTGYTCGAARTARCC-3' | 56 | En este estudio |
| Acinetobacter | | | |
| Oligonucleótido | Secuencia | TM (º C) | Referencia |
| atpD Fw | 5'-ACTCGTGAAGGTAAYGAYTTCTA-3' | 55 | En este estudio |
| atpD Rv | 5'-GACCTTTAAAGCACAGRATNGT-3' | 55 | En este estudio |
| fusA Fw | 5'-TTTAGAACGTATGGAATTCCCDGA-3' | 55 | En este estudio |
| fusA Rv | 5'-TTTAGAACGTATGGAATTCCCDGA-3' | 55 | En este estudio |
| infB Fw | 5'-TTGAAGAAATGGGNCAYMAYCC-3' | 55 | En este estudio |
| infB Rv | 5'-TCACCACCCCAYTSYTCWGC-3' | 55 | En este estudio |
| recA Fw | 5'-ATGTCAAATTGAAAARCARTTYGG-3' | 55 | En este estudio |
| recA Rv | 5'-AATTTTCATACGAATYTGGTTRAT-3' | 55 | En este estudio |
| gyrB Fw | 5'-TTGGTCGTCAAGARTAYAAYCC-3' | 50 | En este estudio |
| gyrB Rv | 5'-CATCATCACCCATBARRCA-3' | 50 | En este estudio |
| rpoC Fw | 5'-GCAGCAATTAAAGARTTYTTTGG-3' | 55 | En este estudio |
| rpoC Rv | 5'-GTTATAACCATTCCANGTCATRA-3' | 55 | En este estudio |
| | | | |

Anexo 12. Oligonucleótidos utilizados en este estudio

| Gen blanco o región | Oligos (5'-3') | Producto de PCR esperado (bp) | Referencia |
|---------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------------|------------------------------|
| bla-VIM | VIM-F- GTGTTTGGTCGCATATCGC | 380 | (Garza-Ramos et al. 2009) |
| | VIM-R-CGAGCACCAGGATAGAAG | | |
| bla-GIM | GIM-F-TGTAGCGTTGCCAGCTTTAG | 633 | (Garza-Ramos et al. 2009) |
| | GIM-R-TTCCAACTTTGCCATGCCCC | | |
| bla-IMP | IMP-F-GGAATAGAGTGGCTTAATTC | 271 | (Garza-Ramos et al. 2009) |
| | IMP-R-GCCAAGCTTCTATATTTGCG | | |
| bla-SPM | SPM-F-AACTCACCTAAATCGAGAGGC | 818 | (Garza-Ramos et al. 2009) |
| | SPM-R-TACAGTTCTATTTCCCAAC | | |
| bla-KPC | KPC-F-CTGTCTTGTCTCTCATGGCC | 796 | (Naas et al. 2008) |
| DIA-RPC | KPC-R-CCTCGCTGTGCTTGTCATCC | 796 | |
| bla-GES | GES-F-CTTCATTCACGCACTATTAC | 827 | (Wachino et al. 2004) |
| DIA-GE2 | GES-R-TAACTTGACCGACAGAGG | 827 | |
| 5CS' | 5CS-GGCATCCAAGCAGCAAG | | (Levesque et al. 1995) |
| 3CS' | 3CS-AAGCAGACTTGACCTGA | | (Levesque et al. 1995) |
| Intl1/HS463a | CTGGATTTCGATCACGGCACG | | (Stokes et al. 2006) |
| Intl1/HS464 | ACATGCGTGTAAATCATCGTCG | | (Stokes et al. 2006) |

Anexo 13. Recetas de medios utilizados en este estudio

Medio NAA Pseudomonas

Solución Winogradsky (3 soluciones) (1L)

| 1) | K_2HPO_4 | 0.8 g |
|----|-------------------------------------|---------|
| 2) | MgSO ₄ | 0.26 g |
| 3) | MnSO ₄ | 3.04 mg |
| 4) | NH ₄ NO ₃ 1 g | 1g |

Medio base (1 L)

| 1) | N-lauroyl sarcosine sodium salt | 1.2 g |
|----|---------------------------------|--------|
| 2) | Agar noble | 18 g |
| 3) | Casaminoácidos | 5 g |
| 4) | H ₂ O destilada | 550 ml |

^{*}Mezclar las soluciones con medio base a temperaturas bajas (puede causar precipitaciones a temperaturas altas).

Adicionar 150 ml de cada solución para 1L de medio.

Medio Simmons-Citrato

| 1 | K ₂ HPO ₄ | 1 g |
|---|---------------------------------|--------|
| 2 | NaCl | 5 g |
| 3 | $Na_3C_6H_5O_7$ | 2 g |
| 4 | $MgSO_4$ | 0.2 g |
| 5 | Azul bromotimol | 0.08 g |
| 6 | Inositol | 1.5 % |

Anexo 14. Metodología de extracción de plásmidos (Kiesser et al., 1984)

| Solución I | | |
|------------------|---------|--|
| Sacarosa 1M | 15ml | |
| Tris-HCL 1M pH 8 | 1.25ml | |
| EDTA 0.5M pH8 | 2.5ml | |
| H2O | 31.25ml | |
| Volumen final | 50ml | |

| Solución II | | |
|---------------|-------|--|
| NaOH 5M | 300ul | |
| SDS 10% | 1.0ml | |
| H2O | 3.7ml | |
| Volumen final | 5ml | |

- 1.- Cultivar en overnight a 37ºC medio LB
- 2.- Alicuotar centrifugando a 14, 000rpm por 3minutos
- 3.- Adicionar 400ul de Solución I. Mezclar en vortex
- 4.- Adicionar 100ul de lisozima preparada (10mg/ml). Mezclar muy suavemente por inmersión
- 5.-Incubar 30 minutos en hielo
- 6.- Adicionar 250u de solución II. Mezclar suavemente por inmersión
- 7.- Incubar 30 minutos a 55ºC, posteriormente enfriar en agua
- 8.- Agregar 80ul de fenol-cloroformo. Mezclar con vortex
- 9.- Centrifugar a 14, 000rpm a 4 $^{\rm o}$ C por 20 minutos. Guardar 450ml de sobrenadante
- 10.-Cargar en agarosa 0.7% Buffer TBE 1X, 6 horas (80V)

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