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Additional Information

1	Detection of viable Helicobacter pylori inside free-living amoebae in wastewater and
2	drinking water samples from Eastern Spain
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Running title: Detection of viable *H. pylori* inside aquatic FLA

15 Summary

Helicobacter pylori is one of the most concerning emerging waterborne pathogens. It has been suggested that it could survive in water inside free-living amoebae (FLA), but nobody has studied this relationship in the environment yet. Thus, we aimed to detect viable *H. pylori* cells from inside FLA in water samples.

20 Sixty-nine wastewater and 31 drinking water samples were collected. FLA were 21 purified and identified by PCR and sequencing. For exclusively detecting *H. pylori* inside 22 FLA, samples were exposed to sodium hypochlorite and assayed by specific PMA-qPCR, 23 DVC-FISH and culture.

FLA were detected in 38.7% of drinking water and 79.7% of wastewater samples, even after disinfection. In wastewater, *Acanthamoeba* spp. and members of the family *Vahlkampfiidae* were identified. In drinking water, *Acanthamoeba* spp. and *Echinamoeba* and/or *Vermamoeba* were present.

In 39 (58.2%) FLA-positive samples, *H. pylori* was detected by PMA-qPCR. After DVC-FISH, 21 (31.3%) samples harboured viable *H. pylori* internalized cells. *H. pylori* was cultured from 10 wastewater samples.

To our knowledge, this is the first report that demonstrates that *H. pylori* can survive inside FLA in drinking water and wastewater, strongly supporting the hypothesis that FLA could play an important role in the transmission of *H. pylori* to humans.

34

35 **1. Introduction**

Among all the emerging waterborne pathogens, Helicobacter pylori is one of the most 36 37 concerning ones, as it causes chronic bacterial infection in humans, closely related to peptic ulcer and gastric cancer, which is the third worldwide leading cause of death by 38 cancer. Human infection by H. pylori is considered to be a great Public Health hazard, 39 with an estimated 50% of the world's population colonized by this bacterium (Torres et 40 al., 2000). Of those, around 10% will develop peptic ulcer, approximately 1% gastric 41 carcinoma and less than 0.1% MALT (mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue) lymphoma 42 43 (Leja et al., 2016). In fact, H. pylori is the only bacterium included by the WHO 44 International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) as a Class I human carcinogen (IARC Working group). 45

46 However, the real risk of its presence in water is not yet well established, which 47 prevents the implementation of preventive policies. Helicobacter pylori is present in 48 human faeces (Queralt, et al., 2005), which supports the possibility of its transmission via the fecal-oral route. There is also epidemiological evidence associating human 49 infection and even the appearance of gastric cancer with contaminated drinking water 50 51 in developing countries (Bunn et al., 2002). Furthermore, the organism has been 52 detected in different aquatic environments, including rivers, wastewater, irrigation 53 water and drinking water systems (Fujimura, et al., 2004; Moreno and Ferrús, 2012; Tirodimos et al., 2014; Santiago et al., 2015; Ranjbar et al., 2016). However, its 54 transmission route remains unclear, because isolation of the bacteria is unlikely. 55 56 Nowadays, there are an increasing number of studies that confirm the presence of H. pylori in water, suggesting that this microorganism is waterborne. However, only a few 57

of them have demonstrated its presence in a viable and cultivable state (Al-Sulami *et al.*, 2012; Moreno and Ferrús, 2012; Tirodimos *et al.*, 2014; Santiago *et al.*, 2015;
Ranjbar *et al.*, 2016).

When environmental conditions are unfavorable for H. pylori, the bacteria enter the 61 viable but non-culturable (VBNC) state, in which changes in their metabolism and 62 morphology are observed (Nilsson et al., 2002) although they maintain their infective 63 64 potential (Piqueres et al., 2006). Moreover, under the VBNC state, bacteria lose their 65 ability to grow on synthetic culture media, which could lead to the underestimation of 66 its presence when samples are analyzed by classical culture methods. This is why 67 molecular techniques such as quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) or fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH) are essential. 68

69 Some authors have also suggested that H. pylori could survive adverse environmental 70 conditions by being attached to biofilms or associated to free-living amoebae (FLA) 71 (Winiecka-Krusnell et al., 2002; Watson et al., 2004; Percival et al., 2009). FLA, such as 72 Acanthamoeba, Naegleria, Vermamoeba or Balamuthia, are ubiquitous protozoa 73 commonly found in water (Sheehan et al., 2003; Magnet et al., 2012; Retana-Moreira 74 et al., 2014; Niyyati et al., 2015; Sente et al., 2016). They have two life cycle stages: the 75 trophozoite, a metabolic active form, and the cyst, a resting form. It has been 76 previously shown that FLA can act as hosts for some bacterial pathogens which are 77 able to resist amoebal digestion (amoeba resisting bacteria, ARB). Different pathogens 78 such as Legionella, Mycobacterium, Aeromonas, Listeria, Arcobacter or Campylobacter have been isolated from inside FLA in co-culture assays (Steinert et al., 1998; García et 79 80 al., 2007; Rahman et al., 2008; Snelling et al., 2008; Akya et al., 2009; Bui et al., 2012;

Villanueva *et al.*, 2016). Inside them, these bacteria survive and are more resistant to harsh environmental conditions that would normally kill them, such as chlorination or presence of biocides (Thomas *et al.*, 2010; Dupuy *et al.*, 2014). Therefore, FLA act as "Trojan horses" for these ARB (Barker and Brown, 1994), thus allowing bacterial survival and/or transmission to susceptible hosts (Siddiqui and Khan, 2012).

86 Recently, an *in vitro* study has demonstrated that *H. pylori* is able to survive inside Acanthamoeba castellanii after resisting a chlorination disinfection treatment 87 (Moreno-Mesonero et al., 2016). Viable H. pylori cells from inside A. castellanii were 88 89 successfully detected by the molecular technique DVC-FISH. This technique primarily 90 consists of an incubation of samples in the presence of Novobiocin antibiotic, which is 91 an inhibitor of DNA gyrase that leads to elongated and swollen cells. Cells are then 92 observed under an epifluorescence microscope, and viable and non-viable cells can be 93 discriminated by differences in size (Piqueres et al., 2006). Along with this study, Winiecka-Krusnell et al., 2002 and Smith and Ashbolt, 2012 also suggested that FLA 94 95 provide shelter for H. pylori, enabling it to survive under different treatments and 96 making its transmission to humans possible. However, this relationship has not 97 previously been studied in environmental samples.

Some FLA are opportunistic pathogens for humans with *Acanthamoeba, Naegleria*, *Balamuthia* and *Sappinia* genera containing species of FLA known to cause disease in humans (Gelman *et al.*, 2001; Visvesvara *et al.*, 2007; Qvarnstrom *et al.*, 2009; Thomas *et al.*, 2010). The aim of this study was to investigate the presence of viable *H. pylori* cells from inside FLA in wastewater and drinking water samples originating in Spain

and to isolate and identify FLA from the same samples. Results of this work support

104 that *H. pylori* belongs to the ARB group, surviving inside FLA in water samples.

105

106 **2. Results**

107 Chlorine measurement indicated that the free residual chlorine in drinking water 108 samples ranged between 0.50 and 0.90 mg/l, which are in the range of potable 109 drinking water according to the World Health Organization (WHO).

A total of 67 (67.0%) of the analyzed samples were positive for the presence of FLA after up to one month of incubation period. Wastewater samples yielded 55 (79.7% of wastewater samples) FLA positive cultures. Among these, 65.2% of the samples were taken after secondary biological treatment and 34.8% of the samples after applying disinfection treatment. Drinking water samples yielded 12 (38.7% of water samples) FLA positive cultures (Table 1).

A total of 39 FLA were purified using a micromanipulator, 31 from wastewater and 8 116 117 from drinking water samples. By means of multiplex PCR, 23 of the FLA cultures were identified (Table 2) (Figure 2). In wastewater samples, several bands appeared in some 118 amplification products. In all of these type of samples, Acanthamoeba spp. and 119 120 members of the family Vahlkampfiidae (i.e. Naegleria and Vahlkampfia) were 121 identified. There was one wastewater sample which could not be identified because it 122 showed no amplification. In another sample, an unidentified fragment of 100 bp was also detected. In drinking water samples, Acanthamoeba spp. and Echinamoeba 123 and/or Vermamoeba were identified. By means of conventional PCR followed by 124

sequencing, 14 of the purified FLA were identified (GenBank accession numbers
MF399028 - MF399037). In wastewater samples, *Acanthamoeba* spp., *A. castellanii, A. tubiashi, A. polyphaga, Naegleria* spp., *Vannellidae* spp. and *Cercozoa* spp. were
identified. In drinking water samples, *Acanthamoeba* spp and *A. mauritaniensis* were
the identified FLA (Table 2). Morphologies of the isolated FLA were observed under the
inverted microscope (Figure 3).

131 Overall, in 39 (58.2%) samples out of the 67 FLA-positive ones it was possible to detect H. pylori DNA by means of PMA-qPCR, which indicated that it was harboured within 132 133 FLA. In wastewater, 28 (50.9%) samples out of the 55 FLA-positive ones, including 134 samples both after secondary and tertiary treatment, contained *H. pylori* inside them at quantifiable concentrations from $3.41 \cdot 10^1$ to $2.77 \cdot 10^3$ genomic units per sample. 135 In the case of drinking water samples, 11 (91.7%) out of the FLA-positive ones had 136 internalized H. pylori (Table 3) at quantifiable concentrations from $1.48 \cdot 10^1$ to $1.36 \cdot$ 137 138 10⁴ genomic units per sample. In both types of water, some samples were positive but 139 out of the range of quantification.

When DVC-FISH was applied, a total of 21 (31.3%) samples out of the 67 FLA-positive ones were positive for viable (elongated and/or swollen) *H. pylori* internalized cells (Figure 4). In the case of wastewater, 16 (29.1%) samples out of the 55 FLA-positive ones had viable *H. pylori*. In drinking water, 5 (41.7%) samples out of the 12 FLApositive ones contained *H. pylori* in its viable state. (Table 3).

By means of cultivation of an aliquot of the hypochlorite treated samples, *H. pylori* was only recovered from wastewater samples. Out of the 55 wastewater FLA-positive samples, growing of *H. pylori* was achieved in 10 (18.2%) of them (Table 3). All

presumptive *H. pylori* colonies from drinking water samples yielded negative results
after qPCR identification.

150 In positive *H. pylori* qPCR and/or DVC-FISH wastewater samples, both *Acanthamoeba* 151 genera and members of the family Vahlkampfiidae were identified by means of the 152 multiplex PCR or the 18S PCR plus sequencing. Equally, both *Acanthamoeba* and 153 *Vermamoeba* and/or *Echinamoeba* genera were identified by the previously cited PCRs 154 in *H. pylori* positive drinking water samples.

155 **3. Discussion**

156 It has been suggested that *H. pylori* could survive adverse environmental conditions by 157 association with FLA (Winiecka-Krusnell et al., 2002; Watson et al., 2004; Percival et al., 158 2009). Taking into account the increasing evidence for the role of water in H. pylori 159 transmission and the difficulties in culturing the bacterium from these samples, this 160 becomes a question of great public health concern which could explain how H. pylori is 161 able to survive in the environment and reach humans through consumption of 162 contaminated water or vegetables. Thus, our work aimed to detect the presence of FLA in drinking water and wastewater intended for irrigation, and demonstrate the 163 164 presence of viable *H. pylori* cells inside them.

FLA were detected in a large number of samples, both drinking and wastewater (Table 1). Purified FLA identification was performed by multiplex PCR (Le Calvez *et al.*, 2012) and by conventional PCR followed by sequencing (Thomas *et al.*, 2006) (Table 2). Some species of the detected FLA are known to be opportunistic pathogens for humans. As expected, *Acanthamoeba* species were the most frequently identified genera in both types of analyzed samples. In Spain, Magnet *et al.*, 2012 identified *Acanthamoeba* by

171 qPCR in 87.5% of the environmental samples studied, which included wastewater, 172 drinking water and locations of influence on river basins. Moreover, Magnet et al., 173 2013 carried out a more extensive study in the same type of samples and identified Acanthamoeba by qPCR in 94.6% of these samples. In our study, members of the 174 Vahlkampfiidae family, which includes the genus Naegleria among others, were 175 176 present in a significant amount of wastewater samples. In drinking water samples, Echinamoeba and/or Vermamoeba were also identified by means of multiplex PCR in 177 178 this work. V. vermiformis had been previously identified in wastewater (García et al., 2011), in recreational water (Reyes Batlle et al., 2016a) and even in soil (Reyes-Batlle et 179 al., 2016b). Thomas et al., 2008 also identified V. vermiformis and Echinamoeba 180 181 exudans in river water and at various stages of a drinking water plant fed with this river 182 water in France.

In order to exclusively detect *H. pylori* which had been internalized by FLA and survived 183 184 inside them, a two-step protocol was applied to FLA-positive samples (Moreno-185 Mesonero et al., 2016). First, sodium hypochlorite treatment was used to kill external 186 cells and then a PMA treatment was applied to remove exogenous DNA and DNA from non-internalized H. pylori dead cells, allowing for the exclusive detection of H. pylori 187 188 DNA from the inside of FLA. Other authors, such as García et al., 2013, used a washing step with an acidified saline serum (pH 2) prior to DNA extraction for this aim. 189 However, this approach is not useful for ARB resistant to acid conditions like *H. pylori*. 190 191 In another study carried out by Thomas et al., 2008, several steps of subcultivation of 192 positive FLA water samples were used to get rid of exogenous bacteria; then FLA were lysed and the content added to A. castellanii cultures to recover ARB. However, in this 193 case one cannot be sure that external bacteria are completely eliminated and that 194

195 exogenous DNA is not detected in subsequent PCRs. Therefore, some FLA-associated196 bacteria could be overrated.

qPCR analysis of the treated samples showed the presence of intracellular *H. pylori*DNA in 28 (50.9%) of wastewater samples and in 11 (91.7%) of drinking water samples.
The high percentage of internalized *H. pylori* cells in drinking water samples could be
due to the relatively low number of FLA-positive samples analyzed. Maybe, this could
also be due to the fact that when FLA are present in drinking water samples it is highly
likely that *H. pylori* could be found.

203 Quantification of each sample was only possible when the amplification occurred prior 204 to Cq 35.00. The non-quantifiable samples were considered positive, but we could not 205 provide a quantification value. Quantification values ranged between $3.41 \cdot 10^1$ to 2.77 206 \cdot 10³ genomic units per sample in wastewater samples and between 1.48 \cdot 10¹ to 1.36 \cdot 207 10⁴ genomic units per sample. Although *H. pylori* concentration in a drinking water 208 sample was greater than those obtained in wastewater, this quantification value was 209 within the range described by Santiago et al., 2015 in drinking water samples. By 210 means of DVC-FISH analysis, viable elongated H. pylori cells were observed in 16 211 (29.1%) wastewater and in 5 (41.7%) drinking water samples. For both types of samples, 212 the percentage of positive DVC-FISH results was lower than the qPCR positive ones. 213 The differences in results obtained by the two molecular techniques were not 214 surprising, because qPCR is unable to distinguish between viable and non viable internalized cells (Moreno-Mesonero et al., 2016). Thus, those differences are likely 215 due to the presence of non-viable, dead cells inside some FLA, which are not able to 216

elongate under DVC conditions (metabolically inactive cells) but whose DNA isamplified by qPCR.

219 To recover H. pylori by culture, FLA-positive treated samples were cultivated on Agar 220 Dent for 7 days, so that FLA could excrete pellets containing the pathogen (Marciano-221 Cabral and Cabral, 2003; Moreno-Mesonero et al., 2016). In an in vitro predation assay 222 of Salmonella and A. polyphaga it was checked that the amoeba excreted the bacteria 223 within 2-4 hours (Gaze et al., 2003). However, the egestion period may depend on 224 environmental conditions, FLA species and bacterial species excreted. This is the 225 reason why cultures were maintained under *H. pylori* specific conditions up to 7 days, 226 so that they could be excreted and able to grow in the culture media.

227 The suspected colonies obtained from 10 (18.2%) wastewater samples were unequivocally identified as H. pylori by qPCR. These 10 samples had also shown 228 229 positive results for *H. pylori* inside FLA by qPCR and/or viability by means of DVC-FISH. 230 The fact that *H. pylori* colonies were able to grow on a plate means that these samples contained potentially infective H. pylori. In the work conducted by Moreno-Mesonero 231 232 et al., 2016; in which a co-cultulture of A. castellanii and H. pylori was carried out, no 233 colonies of the bacteria were recovered by culture. The fact that we were able to 234 culture H. pylori in ten of the wastewater FLA-positive samples may indicate that other 235 environmental FLA different from A. castellanii were present in these samples or that 236 environmental FLA, including A. castellanii, could be suitably protecting H. pylori from 237 environmental conditions. We were not able to recover colonies by culture from some wastewater FLA-positive samples and from any of the drinking water positive samples. 238 This could indicate, according to Moreno-Mesonero et al., 2016, that the bacteria 239

could have acquired the VBNC state, since its viability after the hypochlorite treatmentwas observed by DVC-FISH.

To our knowledge, this is the first report that demonstrates that *H. pylori* can survive inside FLA in environmental water, including drinking water and wastewater, even after disinfection treatment. It strongly supports the hypothesis that FLA could act as Trojan Horses for this pathogen and could play an important role in the transmission of *H. pylori* to humans through the consumption of water.

247 **4. Experimental Procedures**

248 **4.1. Samples**

A total of 100 samples (69 wastewater and 31 drinking water) were collected from February 2013 to July 2016. Drinking water samples were collected from different public fountains from Eastern Spain. Wastewater samples were obtained from two wastewater treatment plants located in Valencia, Spain, at two different treatment points: after applying secondary biological treatment and after UV or chlorine tertiary disinfection treatment. All of these wastewater effluents are intended for irrigation purposes.

All samples were placed into sterile bottles, refrigerated and processed within a few hours. After the collection of each drinking water sample, the measurement of residual free chlorine was performed using the Spectroquant[®] Nova 60 system (Merck, Germany) and its specific chlorine test kit (Cl₂ range: 0.010-6.00 mg/l) (ref. 1.00599.0001, Merck, Germany).

Five litres of drinking water and 1 l of irrigation water samples were filtered through nitrocellulose filters with 3 μ m of pore size (Whatman, Maidstone, England). Membranes were placed upside-down on Non-Nutrient-Agar (NNA, bacteriological agar dissolved in Page's Amebic Saline (PAS) solution (Loveno *et al.*, 2010)) and incubated at 28°C for 24 h. In the case of drinking water samples, NNA plates were seeded with 100 μ l of dead *Escherichia coli* (submitting a suspension of *E. coli* to 100°C for 5 minutes) to serve as nutrients for the amoeba (Badirzadeh *et al.*, 2011).

After 24 h, filters were removed and plates were kept at 28°C. Then, NNA plates were monitored daily up to 30 days for the presence of FLA by inverted and phase contrast microscopy.

271 When FLA growth was observed, PAS was added to NNA plates in order to collect their 272 content using a sterile cell scraper. Content was concentrated in 500 µl of PAS solution 273 by centrifugation at 500 g for 3 min. Then, bacteria outside FLA were killed using sodium hypochlorite for 1 hour at a final concentration of 104 ppm as previously 274 275 described (Moreno-Mesonero et al., 2016). Sodium hypochlorite was removed from 276 samples by washing them three times (500 g for 3 min) and finally resuspended in 1 ml 277 of PBS 1X. After this treatment, 1 ml aliquots were analyzed by means of PMA-qPCR, 278 DVC-FISH and culture (Figure 1).

279 **4.2. Identification of** *H. pylori* inside FLA.

280 **4.2.1. PMA-qPCR**

In order to detect only bacterial DNA from inside FLA, 500 μl of sodium hypochlorite
 treated samples were exposed to propidium monoazide (PMA) to avoid amplification

283 signals from external H. pylori dead cells DNA (Moreno-Mesonero et al., 2016). Briefly, PMA (GenIUL, Spain) was dissolved in 20% dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO, Sigma-Aldrich®, 284 St. Louis, MO, USA) to create a stock concentration of 2 mM. 12.5 µl of PMA were 285 286 added to the samples, to reach a final concentration of 50 µM. Then, samples were 287 incubated for 10 min under darkness with occasional mixing to allow better reagent 288 penetration. Then, samples were exposed to blue LED light for 15 min at the photo activation system PhAST Blue (GenIUL, Spain). Afterwards, samples were centrifuged 289 290 at 14000 rpm for 5 min and resuspended in 200 µl of PBS 1X (Agustí *et al.,* 2010).

After PMA treatment, DNA was extracted from samples by using the GeneJet[™] genomic DNA purification kit (ThermoScientific, Germany) following the mammalian tissue protocol instructions, with the exception of the incubation time at 56°C, which was increased from 10 min to 30 min (Moreno-Mesonero *et al.*, 2016).

295 Thereafter, specific H. pylori qPCR based on SYBR®Green I fluorescence dye was performed using VacA primers to amplify a 372 bp fragment (Nilsson et al., 2002) in 296 297 LightCycler[®] 2.0 Instrument (Roche Applied Science, Spain). The final reaction volume of 20 µl contained: 2 µl of LightCycler® FastStart DNA Master SYBR Green I (Roche 298 299 Applied Science, Spain), 1.6 µl of MgCl₂ (25 mM stock solution), 0.5 µl of each primer 300 (20 µM stock solution) and 2 µl of DNA template. The amplification consisted of an 301 initial DNA denaturalization step at 95°C for 10 min, followed by 40 cycles of: 95°C for 302 10 s, 62°C for 5 s and 72°C for 16 s; and finally, one cycle at 72°C for 15 s and one at 303 40°C for 30 s (Piqueres et al., 2006). A positive control with H. pylori DNA and a control of external contamination (qPCR mix without DNA) were added to the qPCR analysis. 304 The quantification cycle (Cq) value along with a standard curve were used to calculate 305

the quantification of the number of DNA copies (genomic units, GU) of *H. pylori*, as
previously described by Santiago *et al.*, 2015. PCR products were checked in 1%
agarose gel electrophoresis prepared with 0.001% of GelRed[™] (Biotium, USA)
visualized under ultraviolet light.

310 **4.2.2. DVC-FISH**

311 DVC-FISH analysis was performed according to Piqueres *et al.*, 2006. Briefly, 400 μ l of 312 sodium hypochlorite treated samples were incubated in 3.6 ml of DVC broth (BBLTM 313 Brucella broth supplemented with 5% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 0.5 mg/l of 314 Novobiocin antibiotic) for 24 hours at 37°C under *H. pylori* specific microaerophilic 315 conditions (5% O₂, 10% CO₂ and 85% N₂). After incubation, DVC tubes were centrifuged 316 at 8000 rpm for 8 min and resuspended in 1 ml of PBS 1X.

317 Afterwards, samples were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde for 3 h at 4°C and washed 318 with PBS 1X. Then, samples were hybridized on hybridization slides. Once samples were deposited in each well and allowed to dry, slides were dehydrated by successive 319 320 immersions in 50%, 80% and 100% ethanol for 3 min each. Thereafter, each well was covered with 10 µl of hybridization buffer (0.9 M NaCl, 20 mM HCl-Tris, 0.01% SDS and 321 322 40% formamide, pH 7.5) containing 50 ng of each probe. The reaction was carried out 323 at 46°C for 1.5 h (Moreno et al., 2003). A combination of three EUB338 probes, complementary to a region of the Eubacteria domain 16S rRNA was used as a positive 324 control. For the specific detection of *H. pylori*, a previously designed probe (Moreno et 325 326 al., 2003) with LNA modifications to increase its specificity (Piqueres et al., 2006) was used: LNA-HPY: 5'- CTG GAG AGA C+ TA AGC CC+ T CC-3'. 327

328 Subsequently, slides were washed under darkness at 48°C for 15 min in 50 ml of washing solution (0.10 M NaCl, 0.02 M HCl-Tris, 0.01% SDS and 0.005 M EDTA). Finally, 329 they were washed with distilled water and air-dried under darkness. Slides were 330 mounted with FluoroGuard Antifade Reagent (Bio-Rad, Spain) between the coverslip 331 332 and the slide. They were visualized using an Olympus BX 50 fluorescence microscope 333 with the filters U-MWB, U-MWIB and U-MWIG. Photographs were taken with an Olympus DP-12 camera. A pure culture of DVC-incubated H. pylori cells was used as a 334 positive control of the reaction. 335

336 **4.2.3. Culture**

The presence of living culturable *H. pylori* cells inside the amoeba was investigated by spreading aliquots of 100 µl of the sodium hypochlorite treated samples on Agar Dent plates (ADent: Campylobacter selective agar (Merck, Spain) containing 10% (v/v) defibrinated horse blood (Oxoid, United Kingdom) and *Helicobacter pylori* selective supplement Dent (Oxoid, United Kingdom)). Samples were incubated for 5-7 days at 37°C under *H. pylori* specific microaerophilic conditions detailed above.

Suspicious *H. pylori* colonies were picked and suspended in 200 µl PBS 1X.
Subsequently, DNA was extracted using the GeneJet[™] genomic DNA purification kit
(ThermoScientific, Germany) following the Gram-negative bacteria protocol and qPCR
was performed as explained in section 4.2.1.

347 **4.3. Identification of FLA isolated from samples**

348 When water samples were positive for FLA growth, they were individually isolated 349 using a micromanipulator (Narishige, Japan). Each isolated amoeba was incubated on

NNA at 28°C for 3-5 days. Once growth of a single FLA was checked under the phase
contrast microscope, NNA content was collected by adding PAS and using a sterile cell
scraper.

353 Once in PAS, tubes were centrifuged at 500 g for 3 min and resuspended in 200 μ l of 354 PBS 1X. Then, DNA was extracted using the GeneJetTM genomic DNA purification kit 355 (ThermoScientific, Germany) as explained in 4.2.1.

Identification of FLA by multiplex PCR was performed by amplification of 150 bp, 130
bp and 50 bp 18S rDNA gene fragments corresponding to Vahlkampfiidae (i.e. *Naegleria* and *Vahlkampfia*), *Acanthamoeba* spp., *Naegleria* spp. and *Vermamoeba* sp
and *Echinamoeba* spp, respectively (Le Calvez *et al.*, 2012).

When the multiplex PCR failed to identify the isolates because amplicons' molecular weight were not described by Le Calvez *et al.*, 2012, 18S rRNA conventional PCR and subsequent sequencing (Thomas *et al.*, 2006) was performed from purified FLA.

Products were visualized in 1.5% agarose gel electrophoresis prepared with 0.001% of
GelRed[™] (Biotium, USA). Sequences were analyzed using the online analysis tool
BLAST(https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi) and the ones with homologies greater
than 96% deposited in GenBank.

367 **5. Acknowledgments**

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537 6. Table and figure legends

- 538 Table 1. Number and percentage of analyzed samples contaminated with FLA
- 539 Table 2. Identification of isolated FLA in wastewater and drinking water samples by means of
- 540 multiplex PCR or conventional PCR plus sequencing. Purified FLA sampling point: ¹: after
- 541 secondary treatment. ²: after tertiary treatment.
- Table 3. Summary of number of FLA-positive samples and qPCR, DVC-FISH and culture positive *H. pylori* results
- 544 Figure 1. Workflow overview
- 545 Figure 2. Gel electrophoresis of the purified FLA identified by means of multiplex PCR. Lane 1:
- 546 A. castellanii positive control. Lane 2: Purified amoeba (PA) 4. Lane 3: PA 5. Lane 4: PA 11. Lane
- 547 5: PA 12. Lane 6: PA 22. Lane 7: PA 23. Lane 8: PA 25. Lane 9: PA 36. Lane 10: PA 39. Lane 11:
- 548 PA 17. Lane 12: PA 20. Lane 13: negative control. M: 100 bp ladder
- 549 Figure 3. Phase contrast microphotographs of purified FLA (400x). (a) Purified FLA number 12
- identified as *Acanthamoeba* spp. (b) Purified FLA number 8 identified as *Naegleria* spp.
- 551 Figure 4. Viable *H. pylori* cells from inside environmental FLA from wastewater (a, b) and
- drinking water (c, d) samples identified by DVC-FISH (1000x). (a, c) Hybridization with EUB-338
- 553 probe. (b, d) Hybridization with HPY-LNA probe.