Collateral Sensitivity Associated with Antibiotic Resistance Plasmids

Cristina Herencias[1,a], Jerónimo Rodríguez-Beltrán[1,2,a], Ricardo León-Sampedro[1,2], Jana

Palkovičová[3], Rafael Cantón[1,4], Álvaro San Millán[1,2,*].

[1] *Servicio de Microbiología. Hospital Universitario Ramón y Cajal* and *Instituto Ramón y Cajal de*

Investigación Sanitaria. Madrid, Spain.

[2] *Centro de Investigación Biológica en Red Epidemiología y Salud Pública*, *Instituto de Salud*

Carlos III. Madrid. Spain.

[3] Department of Biology and Wildlife Diseases, Faculty of Veterinary Hygiene and Ecology,

University of Veterinary and Pharmaceutical Sciences Brno, Czech Republic.

[4] *Red Española de Investigación en Patología Infecciosa*. *Instituto de Salud Carlos III*. Madrid.

Spain.

[a] These authors contributed equally to this study and should be regarded as joint first authors.

* Correspondence: alvsanmillan@gmail.com

Abstract (250 words)

Plasmids play a key role in the dissemination of antibiotic resistance (ABR) genes between

bacterial pathogens. Plasmid-mediated ABR is particularly concerning in clinical settings, where

bacteria carrying resistance and multi-resistance plasmids often produce life-threatening infections.

Novel therapeutic strategies based on antibiotic combinations have been proposed to control the

progression of ABR over the last years. One of the most promising approaches in this field are

multi-drug strategies that exploit the collateral sensitivity (CS) effects associated with the

acquisition of ABR mechanisms. A key limitation for the development of these strategies is that

most of the data on CS come from ABR mutations in chromosomal genes, while CS associated

with ABR plasmids remains largely unexplored. Here, we analyzed the collateral effects associated

with the acquisition of six plasmids carrying clinically relevant ABR genes in *Escherichia coli*

MG1655. Our results revealed that ABR plasmids, including the clinically important carbapenem-

resistance conjugative plasmid pOXA-48, produced a moderate but significant number of CS

events. Moreover, we analyzed the fitness effects of ABR plasmids in *E. coli* MG1655, and showed

that plasmid fitness costs are not responsible for CS effects. This study provides the first evidence

of CS associated with ABR plasmids, and paves the way for new studies aimed at understanding

the molecular bases of these CS effects and at designing new antibiotic treatment strategies able

to exploit plasmid-mediated CS.

Importance (150 words)

New therapeutic approaches are urgently needed to counteract the rising problem of antibiotic

resistance (ABR) in bacteria. Evolution-informed strategies based on deploying multiple antibiotics

simultaneously or sequentially represent a promising alternative approach. These therapies usually

exploit CS effects, which occur when the acquisition of resistance to one antibiotic produces

increased susceptibility to a second antibiotic. However, for these strategies to be widely

applicable in the clinical practice they would have to be effective against the main resistance

mechanisms available to bacteria. Recent works have focused on CS strategies designed against

ABR mediated by chromosomal mutations. However, clinically relevant bacteria also acquire ABR

through horizontal gene transfer mediated by mobile genetic elements (mainly plasmids) carrying

dedicated ABR genes. In this study, we analyzed, for the first time, the CS effects associated with

the acquisition of complete ABR plasmids, setting up the bases for the development of CS-

informed treatment strategies against plasmid-mediated ABR.

Body

The rapid evolution of antibiotic resistance (ABR) in bacteria reduces the utility of clinically relevant

antibiotics, making ABR one of the main challenges facing public health (1, 2). In this context, there

is an urgent need for alternative treatment strategies to fight against resistant pathogens (3).

Recent works have shown that collateral sensitivity (CS), which occurs when acquiring resistance

to one antibiotic causes increased susceptibility to a second antibiotic (4), can be exploited to

design multi-drug strategies that select against ABR (5, 6). Specifically, treatments based on the

sequential cycling of antibiotics which resistance mechanisms produce reciprocal CS may prevent,

or even reverse, the evolution of resistance. Several studies have explored the CS networks

emerging from ABR mutations in chromosomal genes [e.g. (5–9)], and a few studies have

analyzed the CS effects produced by the horizontal acquisition of specific ABR genes (10, 11).

Mobile genetic elements, especially plasmids, play a crucial role in the dissemination of ABR

genes between clinical pathogens (12). Despite the advantage conferred by plasmids in the

presence of antibiotics, they usually produce physiological alterations in their bacterial hosts

leading to fitness costs (13). Importantly, plasmids tend to impact the expression of metabolic

genes, and a recent study showed that different plasmids produce common metabolic alterations in

their host bacterium (14). We reasoned that the physiological alterations associated with the

acquisition of ABR plasmids could lead to exploitable CS responses.

In this study, we analyzed the CS effects associated with the acquisition of 6 clinically relevant

ABR plasmids in the host bacterium *Escherichia coli* MG1655 (Table 1, Supplementary Figure 1).

Five of these plasmids had been described in previous works (15–19), while plasmid pCF12 and its

genomic sequence, combining Illumina and PacBio technologies (see methods), is first described

in this study. All the plasmids in this study carried important ß-lactamase genes, including

extended-spectrum ß-lactamases (bla_{SHV-12} and bla_{VEB-9}), AmpC-type ß-lactamase (bla_{FOX-8}), and

carbapenemases (bla_{OXA-48}, bla_{VIM-1}, bla_{IMP-8}, and bla_{GES-5}), as well as other relevant ABR genes

(Table 1). These plasmids belonged to a broad range of incompatibility groups, presented different

sizes, and included conjugative and non-conjugative specimens. We introduced each plasmid

independently in *E. coli* MG1655. The presence of the plasmids was confirmed by sequencing the

complete genomes of the transconjugant clones, which also revealed that no significant

chromosomal mutations accumulated during the process of plasmid acquisition (0-2 mutations

between plasmid-carrying and plasmid-free complete genomes, see Supplementary Table 1).

Table 1. Plasmids used in this study.

Plasmid	Incompatibility group	Mobility (MOB family)	Size (bp)	Resistance Genes	Relative fitness[1] (± SD)	Reference (Genbank Ac. No.)
pOXA-48_K8[2]	IncL	Conjugative (MOBP)	65,499	*bla*_{OXA-48}	0.78 ± 0.02	(19) (MT441554)
pKAZ3	IncA/C	Conjugative (MOBH)	147,957	*bla*_{VEB-9}, *qnrVC-1*, *sul1*, *tetA'*, *tetC*, *dfrA1*, *dfrA23*	0.73 ± 0.01	(15) (KR827392.1)
pKA2Q	IncQ	Mobilizable (MOBF)	8,789	*bla*_{FOX-8}	0.80 ± 0.02	(16) (MT720904)
pCF12	IncX3	Conjugative (MOBP)	43,704	*bla*_{SHV-12}, *qnrS1*	0.90 ± 0.02	This work (MT720906)
pCEMR	ColE-like	Mobilizable	14,478	*bla*_{VIM-1}, *aac(6')-Ib3* *sul1*, *aadA1*, *qacEΔ1*	0.76 ± 0.01	(17) (MG049738.1)
pKP-M1144	ColE-like	Non-transmissible	12,029	*bla*_{BEL-1}, *bla*_{GES-5}, *bla*_{IMP-8}, *aac(6')-Ib3*	0.73 ± 0.01	(18) (KF745070.2)

[1] Relative fitness of plasmid-carrying clones compared to plasmid-free parental *E. coli* MG1655.

[2] pOXA-48_K8 is a pOXA-48-like plasmid. For simplicity, we refer to this plasmid as pOXA-48

throughout the study.

We performed dose-response experiments using 13 different antibiotics belonging to 8 different

antibiotic families (Supplementary Table 2). Specifically, we determined the minimal inhibitory

concentration (MIC, see methods) for plasmid-free MG1655 strain and for each of the six plasmid-

carrying derivatives. We analyzed the collateral antibiotic susceptibility effects associated with the

presence of each plasmid, measured as the fold-change in the antibiotic MIC, between plasmid-

carrying and plasmid-free bacteria (Figure 1A). As expected from their genetic content, all plasmids

conferred resistance to ß-lactam antibiotics and most of them conferred additional resistance to

other antibiotics from different families (Supplementary Table 2). We identified 8 cases of plasmid-

induced CS, which we defined as a reduction in the MIC values of at least 2-fold (calculated as the

fold-change of the median from 4-5 independent MIC determinations). The plasmids that produced

CS effects were pOXA-48 (colistin and azithromycin), pKAZ3 (kanamycin and gentamicin), pKA2Q

(tetracycline), and pCF12 (kanamycin, azithromycin, and tetracycline).

One limitation of MIC measures is that they only provide information on end-point growth after

overnight exposure to the antibiotic. To corroborate MIC results, we conducted two further series of

experiments for the 8 cases of plasmid-induced CS: (i) complete growth curves under a range of

antibiotic concentrations (Figure 1B) and (ii) disk-diffusion antibiograms on agar plates (Figure 1C).

Growth curves qualitatively confirmed plasmid-mediated CS effects at different antibiotic

concentrations for five of the combinations (pOXA-48-azithromycin, pCF12-azithromycin, pOXA-

48-colistin, pCF12-kanamycin, and pKAZ3-kanamycin). For the three remaining cases, we

observed weaker differences in the complete growth dynamics between plasmid-carrying and

plasmid-free strains (pCF12-tetracycline, pKA2Q-tetracycline, and pKAZ3-gentamicin). Disk-

diffusion antibiogram results largely agreed with those from MIC and growth curves, with a general

trend towards an increase in the diameter of the antibiotic inhibition zones in plasmid-carrying

strains compared to the plasmid-free MG1655 (Figure 1C). These differences were statistically

significant for the cases of pCF12-kanamycin, pCF12-azithromycin, pOXA-48-azithromycin, pOXA-

48-colistin, pCF12-tetracycline and pKA2Q-tetracycline (Dunn's multiple comparisons test

corrected two-tailed t-test *P*< 0.001). Together, these results demonstrate that ABR plasmids

produce moderate but significant CS to different antibiotics.

Figure 1. Collateral sensitivity and fitness effects associated with ABR plasmids. (A)

Heatmap representing collateral responses to antibiotics associated with plasmid acquisition. The

color code represents the fold change of MIC in plasmid-carrying derivatives compared to plasmid-

free MG1655 (see legend), obtained from the median of 4-5 independent MIC determinations.

Asterisks indicate cases of ≥ 2-fold decrease in MIC, which we defined as significant CS. AMC:

amoxicillin-clavulanic acid, CTX: cefotaxime, CAZ: ceftazidime, ERT: ertapenem, GM: gentamicin,

KM: kanamycin, TET: tetracycline, TGC: tigecycline, CM: chloramphenicol, AZI: azithromycin, CIP:

ciprofloxacin, RIF: rifampicin, and COL: colistin (B) Growth curves of MG1655 and plasmid-

carrying MG1655 strains under increasing antibiotic concentrations. The antibiotic concentration, in

mg/L, is indicated in the top left corner of each panel. The lines represent the average of six

biological replicates and the shaded area indicates standard deviation. (C) Representation of the

inhibition zones diameters, in mm, obtained from disk-diffusion antibiograms of plasmid-free and

plasmid-carrying MG1655 as boxplots. Antibiotic disk content were as follows: gentamicin 10 μg,

azithromycin 10 μg, kanamycin 30 μg, colistin 10 μg, and tetracycline 30 μg. Horizontal lines inside

boxes indicate median values, the upper and lower hinges correspond to the 25th and 75th

percentiles, and whiskers extend to observations within 1.5 times the interquartile range, individual

data points are also represented (11-15 biological replicates). Asterisks indicate statistically

significant differences (Dunn's multiple comparisons test corrected two-tailed t-test $P< 0.001$). (D)

Correlations between relative fitness and CS level. CS level is represented as the aggregated fold

change in MIC for antibiotics showing CS effects (upper panel), and the number of antibiotics to

which the plasmid produces any CS effects (lower panel).

Interestingly, one of the cases of CS observed in our study involved plasmid pKAZ3 and the

kanamycin and gentamicin aminoglycoside antibiotics. Plasmid pKAZ3 encodes the tetracycline

resistance efflux pump TetA, which is known to increase aminoglycoside uptake and susceptibility

(11). This likely explains the pKAZ3-induced CS to aminoglycoside antibiotics and confirms that

our experimental design is able to recapitulate known instances of CS.

Beyond the case of pKAZ3 and aminoglycoside antibiotics, one simple and general explanation for

plasmid-mediated CS effects would be that CS is produced by the fitness costs imposed by

plasmids. If a plasmid reduces bacterial growth, one may expect the effects of antibiotics to be

more dramatic in the less fit plasmid-carrying clone than in the plasmid-free one, which would

translate into a CS effect. To test this possibility, we performed competition assays to determine

the relative fitness of the plasmid-carrying clones compared to the plasmid-free MG1655 strain.

Our results revealed that all six plasmids imposed a fitness cost in the host bacterium MG1655,

which ranged from a 10% to a 27% reduction in relative fitness (Table 1). We hypothesized that if

fitness costs are responsible for CS, these two variables should be positively correlated. We used

two different metrics to capture the general CS level of each plasmid-carrying strain: number of

antibiotics affected by CS effects and the aggregated fold change of CS effects (see methods). We

observed no significant correlation between plasmids' fitness effects and CS level (Pearson's rank

correlation, $P > 0.15$, Figure 1E). In fact, plasmid pCF12 produced both the lowest fitness cost in

MG1655 and the greatest number of significant cases of CS. These results suggested that the

general reduction in fitness imposed by plasmids is not responsible for the observed CS effects.

Concluding remarks

In this study we investigated, for the first time, the CS associated with the acquisition of clinically-

relevant ABR plasmids. Our results revealed that ABR plasmids are involved in a moderate but

significant number of CS events, comparable to those generated by ABR chromosomal mutations

in *E. coli* (5–7). CS responses are variable among plasmids, with some plasmids producing no

significant CS and others increasing the susceptibility to up to three different antibiotics. Our study

set the bases for further work focused on at least two different research lines: (i) understanding the

molecular bases underlying the plasmid-specific CS responses and (ii) exploring if plasmid-

mediated CS could be exploited therapeutically for clinically relevant enterobacteria.

Acknowledgments

We are grateful to thank Costas Papagiannitsis, Carl-Frederik Flach, Fabrice Elia Graf and Martin

Palm for generous gifts of plasmids. We also appreciate the technical support of Carmen de la

Vega and Laura Jaraba. This work was supported by the European Research Council under the

European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme (ERC grant agreement no.

757440-PLASREVOLUTION) and by the *Instituto de Salud Carlos III* (grant PI16-00860) co-funded

by European Development Regional Fund "a way to achieve Europe". ASM is supported by a

Miguel Servet Fellowship (MS15-00012). JRB is a recipient of a *Juan de la Cierva-Incorporación*

Fellowship (IJC2018-035146-I) co-funded by *Agencia Estatal de Investigación del Ministerio de*

Ciencia e Innovación. CH is supported by *Comunidad Autónoma de Madrid*

(PEJD-2018-POST/BMD-8016).

References

1.   O'Neill J. 2014. The Review on Antimicrobial Resistance Tackling drug-resistant infections

globally: final report and recommendations. London, United Kingdom Rev Antimicrob Resist.

2.   Maclean R, San Millan A. 2019. The Evolution of Antibiotic Resistance. Science (80-) 365.

3.   Michael Baym, Laura K. Stone and RK. 2016. Multidrug evolutionary strategies to reverse

antibiotic resistance. Science (80-) 15351.

4.   Szybalski W, Bryson V. 1952. Genetic studies on microbial cross resistance to toxic agents.

I. Cross resistance of Escherichia coli to fifteen antibiotics. J Bacteriol 64:489–499.

5.   Ria Lázár V, Singh GP, Spohn R, Nagy I, Horváth B, Nika Hrtyan M, Bert Busa-Fekete R,

Bogos B, Méhi O, Csö B, Rgy Pó Sfai G, Fekete G, Szappanos B, Kégl B, Papp B, Pál C.

2013. Bacterial evolution of antibiotic hypersensitivity. Mol Syst Biol 9.

6.   Imamovic L, Sommer MOA. 2013. Use of collateral sensitivity networks to design drug

cycling protocols that avoid resistance development. Sci Transl Med 5:1–10.

7.   Podnecky NL, Fredheim EGA, Kloos J, Sørum V, Primicerio R, Roberts AP, Rozen DE,

Samuelsen Ø, Johnsen PJ. 2018. Conserved collateral antibiotic susceptibility networks in

diverse clinical strains of Escherichia coli. Nat Commun 9:1–11.

8.   Maltas J, Wood KB. 2019. Pervasive and diverse collateral sensitivity profiles inform optimal

strategies to limit antibiotic resistance. Plos Biol 17.

9.   Roemhild R, Linkevicius M, Andersson DI. 2020. Molecular mechanisms of collateral

sensitivity to the antibiotic nitrofurantoin. PLoS Biol 18:e3000612.

10. Rosenkilde CEH, Munck C, Porse A, Linkevicius M, Andersson DI, Sommer MOA. 2019.

Collateral sensitivity constrains resistance evolution of the CTX-M-15 β-lactamase. Nat

Commun 10:1–10.

11. Merlin TL, Davis GE, Anderson WL, Moyzis RK, Griffith JK. 1989. Aminoglycoside uptake

increased by tet gene expression. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 33:1549–1552.

12.   Partridge SR, Kwong SM, Firth N, Jensen SO. 2018. Mobile Genetic Elements Associated

with Antimicrobial Resistance. Clin Microbiol Rev. 1;31(4):e00088-17.

13.   San Millan A, MacLean RC. 2017. Fitness Costs of Plasmids: a Limit to Plasmid

Transmission. Microbiol Spectr 5:1–12.

14.   San Millan A, Toll-Riera M, Qi Q, Betts A, Hopkinson RJ, McCullagh J, MacLean RC. 2018.

Integrative analysis of fitness and metabolic effects of plasmids in Pseudomonas aeruginosa

PAO1. ISME J 12:3014–3024.

15.   Flach CF, Johnning A, Nilsson I, Smalla K, Kristiansson E, Larsson DGJ. 2015. Isolation of

novel IncA/C and IncN fluoroquinolone resistance plasmids from an antibiotic-polluted lake.

J Antimicrob Chemother 70:2709–2717.

16.   Hernández-García M, León-Sampedro R, Pérez-Viso B, Morosini MI, López-Fresneña N,

Díaz-Agero C, Coque TM, Ruiz-Garbajosa P, Cantón R. 2018. First report of an OXA-48-

And CTX-M-213-producing Kluyvera species clone recovered from patients admitted in a

university hospital in Madrid, Spain. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 62.

17.   Papagiannitsis CC, Paskova V, Chudejova K, Medvecky M, Bitar I, Jakubu V, Zemlickova H,

Jirsa R, Hrabak J. 2018. Characterization of pEncl-30969cz, a novel ColE1-like plasmid

encoding VIM-1 carbapenemase, from an Enterobacter cloacae sequence type 92 isolate.

Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis 91:191–193.

18.   Papagiannitsis CC, Dolejska M, Izdebski R, Dobiasova H, Studentova V, Esteves FJ, Derde

LPG, Bonten MJM, Hrabák J, Gniadkowski M. 2015. Characterization of pKP-M1144, a

Novel ColE1-like plasmid encoding IMP-8, GES-5, and BEL-1 β-lactamases, from a

Klebsiella pneumoniae sequence type 252 isolate. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 59:5065–

5068.

19.   Leon-Sampedro R, DelaFuente J, Diaz-Agero C, Crellen T, Musicha P, Rodriguez-Beltran J,

Vega C de la, Hernandez-Garcia M, Lopez-Fresnena N, Ruiz-Garbajosa P, Canton R,

Cooper BS, Millan AS. 2020. Dissemination routes of the carbapenem resistance plasmid

pOXA-48 in a hospital setting. bioRxiv 2020.04.20.050476.