

1 **THEORY OF (ANTIMICROBIAL) RELATIVITY:**
2 **WHEN COMPETITORS DETERMINE A SPECIES' DRUG SENSITIVITY.**

3 CARLOS REDING^{1*}

4 ¹*Department of Genetics, School of Medicine, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94304.*

5 ***Corresponding author:** reding@stanford.edu

6 **The use of antimicrobials without imposing selection on resistant mutants is conjectured (1, 2)**
7 **to stop the rise of multi-drug resistance, but proof is still elusive. Here I present experimental**
8 **evidence, underpinned by a mathematical model, showing that antimicrobial sensitivity can be**
9 **predictably manipulated to achieve the sustained drug efficacy expected from evolution-proof**
10 **therapies. The model relies on neighbouring microbial species often found in polymicrobial en-**
11 **vironments. The neighbours can act as drug or carbon sink depending on their drug sensitivity,**
12 **changing the relative abundance of drug molecules within a focal species and influencing its sensi-**
13 **tivity to antimicrobials. Aided by this theory, I doubled the sensitivity of *Escherichia coli* MC4100**
14 **to tetracycline in 24h sensitivity tests. Importantly, the effect was maintained after 168h of serial**
15 **passages akin to those used in evolutionary biology (3). My results show that evolutionary-proof**
16 **therapy design is, indeed, possible. My theory provides a framework to design synthetic neigh-**
17 **bours that maximise drug efficacy, while minimising selection on resistance, opening a new venue**
18 **in drug therapy design.**

19 **I. INTRODUCTION**

20 Pure cultures are fundamental in microbiology. They consist of one purified microbial species, isolated,
21 for example, to quantify antimicrobial sensitivity (4–6). Indeed, routine clinical protocols across the globe
22 (7, 8) rely on pure cultures. However, therapies designed using pure cultures target pathogens thriving
23 in polymicrobial environments (9). And there, their sensitivity is unpredictable: Pathogens known to be
24 sensitive to an antimicrobial can be interpreted as resistant, and *vice versa*, when the sample contains multi-
25 ple microbial species (10–12). Not surprisingly, therapies targeting pathogens in polymicrobial conditions
26 can often fail (13). But the underlying mechanism is unknown. Interestingly, the sensitivity of cancers to
27 chemotherapies is also affected by neighbouring microorganisms, particularly those growing within the
28 tumour's microenvironment (14, 15). Here the mechanism is also unknown.

29 Below I show a simple mathematical model suggesting that neighbouring microorganisms act as carbon
30 or antimicrobial sink and, therefore, change the drug sensitivity of other species (i.e. a pathogen or tumour).
31 The change is predictable, and I used the model to increase two-fold the sensitivity of *Escherichia coli* to
32 tetracycline. Perhaps more importantly, I also show that *E. coli* remained hyper-sensitive to the drug for
33 more than 80 generations—resembling the conjecture outcome of evolution-proof therapies. Moreover,
34 the model can predict the likelihood of drug-tolerance of a pathogen, or a tumour, based on the sensitivity
35 of their neighbouring microorganisms.

36 **II. RESULTS**

37 **Drug sensitivity of a focal species is determined by susceptibility of its neighbouring species.**
38 Consider j phenotypically distinct species competing for a limited resource, C , and exposed to a drug, A ,

39 cast as the following model:

$$40 \quad \dot{S}_j = \overbrace{G_j(C)S_j}^{\text{Growth}} \cdot \overbrace{I_j(A)}^{\text{Inhibition}}, \quad (1a)$$

$$41 \quad \dot{A}_j = \overbrace{-dA_j}^{\text{Decay}} + \overbrace{\varphi_j(A_e - A_j)S_j}^{\text{Fick's Diffusion}}, \quad (1b)$$

$$42 \quad \dot{A}_e = -dA_e - \sum_{j=1}^i \varphi_j(A_e - A_j)S_j \quad (1c)$$

$$43 \quad \dot{C} = - \sum_{j=1}^i \overbrace{U_j(C)S_j}^{\text{C-Uptake}} \quad (1d)$$

44 Here, \dot{S}_j and \dot{A}_j represent the density of individuals per unit volume from species j and their content of
 45 drug A over time, respectively. $U_j(C)$, the uptake rate of resource C —supplied at concentration C_0 —of
 46 individuals from species j , is a saturating Monod function proportional to the maximal uptake rate,

$$47 \quad U_j(C) := \bar{\mu}_j \frac{C}{K_j + C}, \quad (2)$$

48 where K_j is the half-saturation parameter and the affinity of individuals from species j for the limited re-
 49 source C is given by $1/K_j$. Their growth rate (i.e. absolute fitness) at a given resource concentration is
 50 denoted by $G_j(C) := U_j(C) \cdot y_j$, where y_j is the biomass yield per unit of resource in individuals from
 51 species j . Their growth inhibition, by drug A , is described qualitatively by the inhibition function (16)

$$52 \quad I_j(A) := \frac{1}{1 + (A_j/\kappa_j)^\alpha}, \text{ where } 0 \leq I_j(A) \leq 1. \quad (3)$$

53 This function is dimensionless and has two parameters. First, the Hill coefficient α which characterises the
 54 cooperativity of the inhibition. And second, κ_j is the affinity of drug A for its target and it can be derived
 55 from the drug concentration required to halve the maximal growth rate, so that $A_{50} = 1/\kappa_j$ (16). Drug A is
 56 supplied at concentration A_0 , outside any individuals, at $t = 0$ (so, $A_e(0) = A_0$). The drug then diffuses into
 57 individuals from species j with a diffusion coefficient noted by φ_j , and part of A is lost to chemical stability
 58 (17) at a rate d .

59 For my first computation I set the number of species $j = 2$, to facilitate later experimental validation,
 60 where $I_1(A) = I_2(A)$ and $G_1(C) = G_2(C)$. Thus, individuals from both species are sensitive to A and
 61 phenotypically identical. Given Equation 3, the density of individuals from either species as pure cultures
 62 declines with higher drug concentrations consistently with standard clinical protocols (7, 8) (Figure 1A). To
 63 allow experimental validation, I calculated the concentration of A inhibiting the growth of the pure cultures
 64 by 90% (IC_{90}) as commonly used in clinic laboratories (18–20). The drug sensitivity of each species depends
 65 on the values for the parameters K , $\bar{\mu}$, and y of Equation 2 (Figure 1B–D, grey), with values that increase
 66 the density of individuals resulting in higher IC_{90} . This is consistent with the *inoculum effect* (21), whereby
 67 sensitivity tests using larger inocula also report higher minimum inhibitory concentrations.

68 This phenomenon is exacerbated if both species grow in mixed culture conditions, where both become
 69 phenotypically more tolerant to drug A (Figure 1B–D, black). If I were to target, say, individuals from species

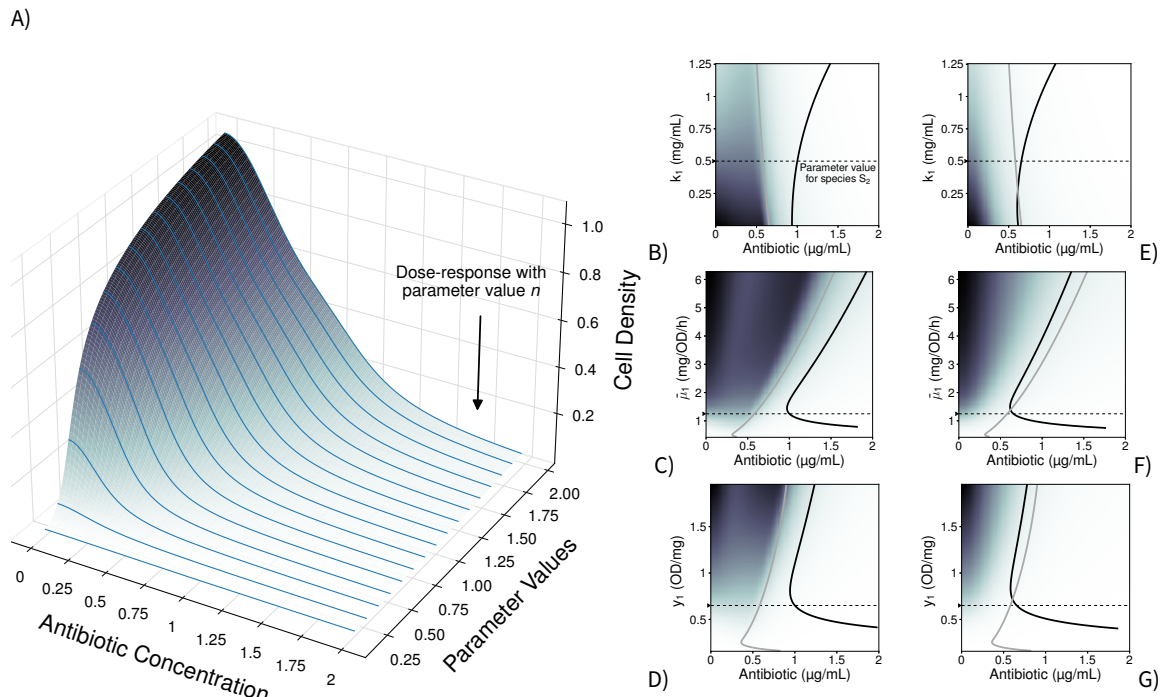


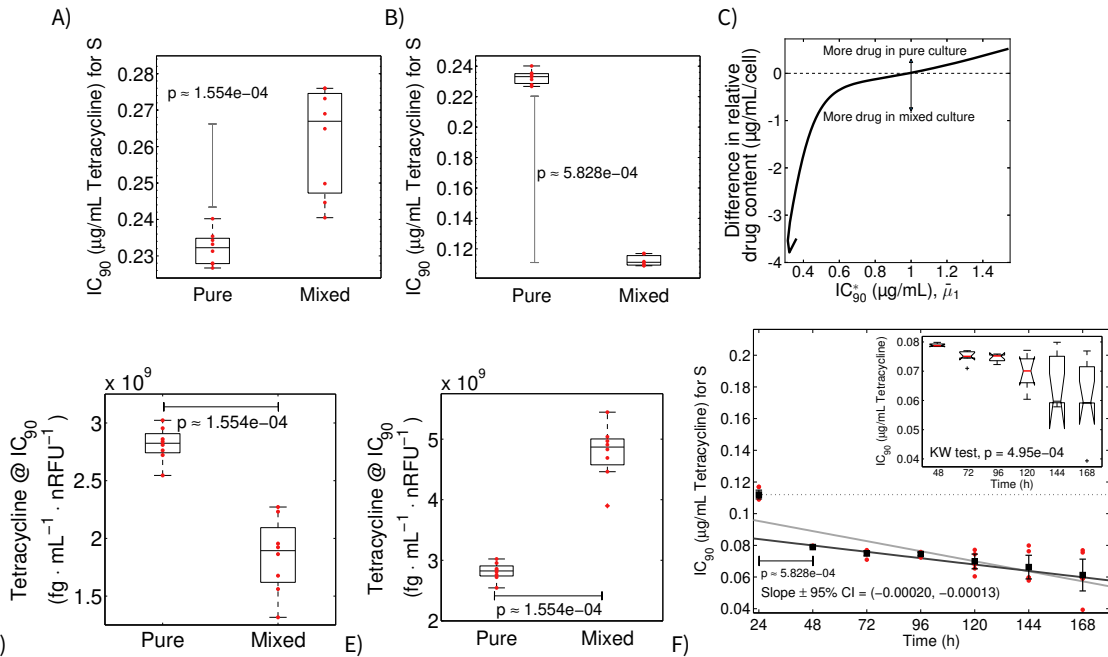
Figure 1. S_1 drug sensitivity profiles in pure and mixed culture growth conditions alongside accessory species S_2 . **A)** Growth of species S_1 , with different parameter values (k_1 , $\bar{\mu}_1$, and y_1), after 24h of growth in the presence of different antibiotic concentrations. I aggregated the resulting dose-response profiles (blue) to create a density map from low predicted cell density (white) to high predicted cell density (black). **B–D)** IC_{90} , antibiotic concentration inhibiting 90% (IC_{90}) the growth predicted without drug, resulting with different parameters values for the half-saturation parameter k_1 (B), maximal carbon up-take $\bar{\mu}_1$ (C), or biomass yield y_s (D) in equation 1 when species S_2 is drug-sensitive. The IC_{90} for species S_1 growing as pure cultures is shown in grey, and growing in mixed culture with S_2 are shown in black. The parameter values for species S_2 were fixed at a value noted by a black arrow on the y-axis, followed by a dotted black line. **E–G)** Change in IC_{90} , as in Figures B–C), when the competing species S_2 is *not* drug-sensitive.

S_1 , doing so when the species is surrounded by S_2 would require more drug. This is the case of pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma with bacteria growing in its microenvironment (14). More generally, genotypes analog to S_1 should increase their drug tolerance when they are surrounded by similarly sensitive species.

To test this hypothesis, I mixed equal proportions of *Escherichia coli* Wyl and *Salmonella typhimurium* SL1344 in minimal media supplemented with different concentrations of tetracycline (see Methods). Both species have similar sensitivity to this antibiotic, 0.232 ± 0.003 and 0.276 ± 0.016 µg/mL of tetracycline (mean $IC_{90} \pm 95\%$ confidence, with $n = 8$ replicates, see Methods). This approximates to $I_1(A) \approx I_2(A)$, as laid out by the theory above. The chromosome of *E. coli* Wyl carries *yfp*, gene encoding a yellow fluorescence protein (YFP), so I tracked its density in mixed culture conditions. Consistently with Equations 1a–d, the bacterium was around 23% more tolerant to tetracycline when it grew in mixed culture with *S. typhimurium* (Mann-Whitney U-test $p = 1.554 \times 10^{-4}$, $ranksum = 36$ with $n = 8$ replicates, Figure 2A).

Next, I explored in the model the case where individuals from both species have different sensitivities to drug A ($I_1(A) \neq I_2(A)$). This scenario is akin to pathogens such as *C. difficile* growing alongside human cells (22) where the latter are unaffected by the drug ($I_2(A) \approx 1$). The model now predicts a subset of values for K , y , and $\bar{\mu}$ that make S_1 more sensitive to the drug in the presence of individuals from species S_2 (Figure 1E–G). To test this prediction, I mixed equal proportions of two constructs of *Escherichia coli* with

100 different sensitivities to tetracycline. One construct is Wyl, used above, who is sensitive to the antibiotic.
 101 The other construct is GB(c), harbouring a non-transmissible plasmid carrying the gene *tet(36)* (23) and,
 102 therefore, resistant to the drug. Tetracycline binds to the bacterial ribosome, inhibiting protein synthesis
 103 (24), and *tet(36)* provides ribosomal protection against tetracycline (23) without degrading the antibiotic.
 104 The IC_{90} for this construct was $6.106 \pm 0.272 \mu\text{g/mL}$ of tetracycline (mean $IC_{90} \pm 90\%$ confidence with
 105 $n = 8$ replicates). Now, $I_1(A) \ll I_2(A)$ satisfies the assumption above. The IC_{90} for *E. coli* Wyl was
 106 $0.232 \pm 0.003 \mu\text{g/mL}$ of tetracycline as pure culture. Growing alongside drug-resistant GB(c), however, it
 107 was $0.112 \pm 0.003 \mu\text{g/mL}$ (Figure 2B).



108

109 **Figure 2. Changes in IC_{90} of drug-sensitive *Escherichia coli* Wyl are consistent with theoretical predictions. A–B)** IC_{90}
 110 for tetracycline of *Escherichia coli* Wyl in pure culture, and in mixed culture with *Salmonella typhimurium* (A) and *Escherichia*
 111 *coli* GB(c) (B). The IC_{90} for *S. typhimurium* in pure culture was $0.276 \pm 0.016 \mu\text{g/mL}$ of tetracycline (mean $\pm 95\%$ confidence),
 112 and $6.106 \pm 0.272 \mu\text{g/mL}$ for *E. coli* GB(c). The box plot shows the median (centre of the box), 25th, and 75th percentile of
 113 the dataset. The whiskers extend to the most extreme data points that are not outliers, which are individually represented.
 114 Raw data is represented as red dots. The p value shown corresponds to a Mann-Whitney U-test. **C)** Theoretical difference
 115 in relative drug content—antibiotic molecules per cell—of S_1 between pure culture conditions, and mixed culture with *drug-*
 116 *sensitive* S_2 for different $\bar{\mu}$ values (for all parameters in Figure S1). Positive values denote higher content of antibiotic per
 117 cell in pure culture conditions, whereas negative values denote higher antibiotic per cell in mixed culture. Lack of difference
 118 is represented by a horizontal, dotted line. **D–E)** Estimation of tetracycline content from experimental data of *E. coli* Wyl
 119 growing alongside *Salmonella typhimurium* (D) and *E. coli* GB(c) (E). The box plots show the median (centre of the box),
 120 25th, and 75th percentile of the dataset. The whiskers extend to the most extreme data points that are not outliers, which
 121 are individually represented. Raw data is represented as red dots. The p value shown corresponds to a Mann-Whitney U-
 122 test. **F)** Variation in IC_{90} of *E. coli* Wyl in mixed culture over time. The errorbars denote mean IC_{90} and 95% confidence, and
 123 raw data is shown as red dots. The p value shown corresponds to a Mann-Whitney U-test. I fitted a linear model to IC_{90} data
 124 including (grey) and excluding the IC_{90} at 24h, and showed the slope parameter of the case with the lowest p . The inset
 125 show the p value of a Kruskal Wallis one-way ANOVA applied to IC_{90} data excluding that measured at 24h. The box plot
 126 shows the median in red, 25th, and 75th percentile of the dataset. The whiskers extend to the most extreme data points
 127 that are not outliers, which are individually represented as a black cross.

129 **Neighbouring species S_2 determines drug availability for S_1 .** Above I noted that parameter values
130 leading to higher density of individuals in pure culture, also led to higher IC_{90} . When $I_1(A) \approx I_2(A)$,
131 Equations 1a–d suggest that individuals from one species change the drug availability, measured as relative
132 drug molecules per individual, for the other. Thus, when species S_2 absorbs its share of drug in mixed
133 culture conditions, there is less of it available for species S_1 resulting in less drug per individual (Figure
134 S1A–C)—and *vice versa*. However, when $I_1(A) \neq I_2(A)$, the least sensitive species barely absorbs drug.
135 The change in drug availability occurs through a different mechanism. The least sensitive species is able to
136 remove a higher share of the limited resource, C , as its growth is unaffected by the drug. Thus, the growth
137 of the most sensitive species is limited (25), leaving more drug per individual of this species (Figure S1D–F).

138 To verify this rationale, I estimated the content of tetracycline in *E. coli* Wyl by dividing the bacterium's
139 culture density, measured in relative fluorescence units to allow tracking in mixed culture conditions, by the
140 concentration of tetracycline defining its IC_{90} . The estimates resemble closely the theoretical predictions in
141 Figure 2C: *E. coli* Wyl contains approximately 20% less tetracycline growing next to *Salmonella typhimurium*
142 (Figure 2D) and 65% more tetracycline growing alongside drug-resistant GB(c) (Figures 2E).

143 Now, experiments of parallel evolution show that *acr*, operon responsible for the multi-drug efflux
144 pump AcrAB-TolC (26), undergoes genomic amplification in *E. coli* MC4100 (3). Thus, MC4100 overcomes
145 the exposure to doxycycline, a type of tetracycline drug, within five days given its increased capacity to
146 remove antibiotic molecules (3). Other strains of *E. coli* show identical adaptation (27). To test whether
147 Wyl, MC4100 derivative sensitive to tetracycline, overcomes its exposure to the drug I propagated a culture
148 containing equal proportions of *E. coli* Wyl and GB(c) for 168h. If Wyl acquires a mutation, such as the
149 amplification of *acr*, that protects it against tetracycline I would expect greater IC_{90} over time. However, as
150 Figure 2F illustrates, the IC_{90} of Wyl was further reduced during this period.

151 III. DISCUSSION

152 My theory reconciles conflictive sensitivity data reported through direct sensitivity tests (7, 10, 11)—drug
153 sensitivity tests that skip the isolation and purification of a pathogen (28–30). Using direct testing, pathogens
154 known to be sensitive to a drug can be interpreted as resistant and *vice versa* (10, 31). While direct testing
155 shortens turnaround time in hospitals, allowing to initiate therapies earlier (32), international guidelines
156 (7) do not recommend these tests as they can be misleading. A simple mathematical model can explain why
157 such inconsistencies occur.

158 The predictability of changes in sensitivity in polymicrobial environments poses the following question:
159 Can we exploit the underlying principle? 'Evolution-proof' therapies are the next frontier in the treatment
160 of both infectious diseases (2) and cancers (33), but whether they exist is still a conjecture. A corollary for
161 the above inconsistencies is that pathogens can have multiple sensitivities to the same drug, and my model
162 and data suggest that the underlying principle could be used to develop strategies that 'sensitise' cancers
163 and pathogens to chemotherapies. Mine is a very simple model inspired by the polymicrobial ecosystem
164 where pathogens thrive, so I do not wish to over state its predictive power. For example, it lacks an im-
165 mune response or environmental complexities found in the human body. But it shows that evolution-proof
166 strategies are indeed possible. This, however, this does not mean adaptation stops. Data in Figure 2F show
167 adaptation of Wyl, given the change in standard error in IC_{90} . Now, a successful mutant must not only be
168 resistant to the drug, but also fit enough to outcompete its neighbours—with a lower supply of mutants
169 imposed by its neighbour's competitive suppression (25).

170 This work is focused on bacteria as they can easily be grown in a laboratory or labelled. But the model
171 can also apply to cancers. The drug content in pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma is lower in the tumour
172 when bacteria are present (14). My model suggests these bacteria would be acting as drug sink, absorbing
173 part of the drug and causing the tolerance to chemotherapies reported in Ref. Geller *et al.* (14).

174 IV. METHODS

175 **Media and Strains.** The strains of *Escherichia coli* GB(c) and Wyl (34) were a gift from Remy Chait and
176 Roy Kishony, and *Salmonella typhimurium* SL1344 (35) a gift from Markus Arnoldini and Martin Acker-
177 mann. Experiments were conducted in M9 minimal media supplemented with 0.4% glucose and 0.1%
178 casamino acids and supplemented with tetracycline. I made tetracycline stock solutions from powder stock
179 (Duchefa #0150.0025) at 5mg/mL in deionised water. Subsequent dilutions were made from this stock and
180 kept at 4°C.

181 **Sensitivity assay.** I inoculated a 96-well microtitre plate, containing 150µg/mL of media supplemented
182 with 0–0.5 µg/mL of tetracycline (for *E. coli* Wyl and *S. typhimurium*) or 0–15µg/mL (for *E. coli* GB(c)), with
183 an overnight of each strain to measure drug sensitivity in pure cultures. For sensitivity assays of Wyl in
184 mixed culture conditions I inoculated the microtitre plate, containing 150µg/mL of media supplemented
185 with 0–0.5 µg/mL of tetracycline, with equal proportions of two overnight cultures: Wyl + GB(c) or Wyl +
186 *S. typhimurium*.

187 I incubated the microtitre plate at 30°C in a commercial spectrophotometer and measured the optical
188 density of each well at 600nm (OD_{600}), yellow fluorescence for Wyl (YFP excitation at 505nm, emission at
189 540nm), and cyan fluorescence for GB(c) (CFP at 430nm/480nm) every 20min for 24h. I defined the mini-
190 mum inhibitory concentration as the tetracycline concentration able to inhibit 90% of the growth observed
191 in the absence of antibiotic after the 24h incubation period.

192 **Culture readings.** Fluorescence protein genes were constitutively expressed with an approximately con-
193 stant fluorescence to optical density ratio (Figure S2). The number of colony forming units (CFU) is posi-
194 tively correlated with optical density measured at 600nm (OD_{600}) (Figure S3). Thus, I normalised fluores-
195 cence readings with respect to optical density readings, using the ratio optical density to fluorescence that I
196 in pure culture conditions, to track the relative abundance of Wyl in mixed culture conditions. Time series
197 data set were blank corrected prior to calculating the minimum inhibitory concentration.

198 **Evolutionary dataset.** Following the protocol in Reference (3) I propagated a mixed culture, growing
199 in a 96-well microtitre plate containing 150µg/mL of media supplemented with 0–0.5 µg/mL of tetracy-
200 cline, into a new microtitre plate containing fresh media and antibiotic every 24h. Growth data was blank
201 corrected as above, and used to calculate the IC_{90} .

202 **Code availability:** A python implementation of equations 1a–d can be found at [https://github.com/rc-](https://github.com/rc-redding/papers/tree/master/EvolProof_2020)
203 [redding/papers/tree/master/EvolProof_2020](https://github.com/rc-redding/papers/tree/master/EvolProof_2020). The parameter values used can be found in Table S1.

204 **Competing interests:** The author declares no competing interests.

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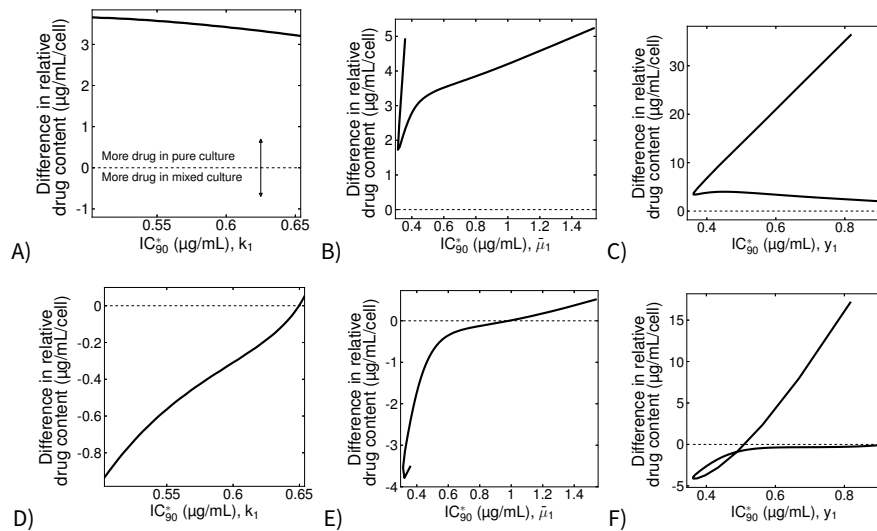
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283 **V. SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES**

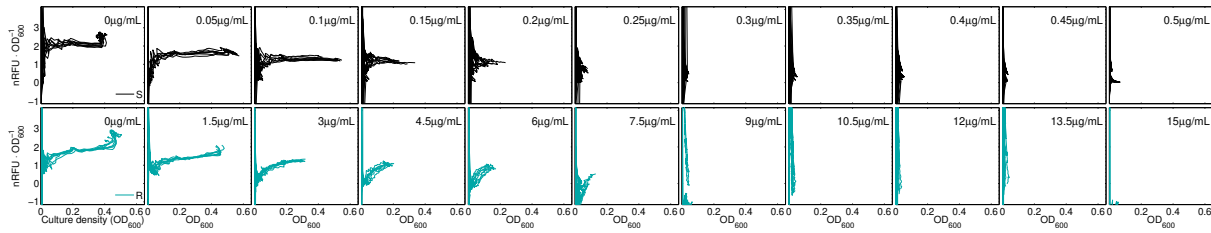
Table S1. Model parameters for Equations 1a–d, 2 and 3.

Parameter	Description	Value
$\bar{\mu}_j$	Maximal carbon uptake rate	1.25 mg / OD / h
K_j	Half-saturation constant	0.5 mg / mL
y_j	Biomass yield	0.65 OD / mg
d	Drug degradation rate	10^{-4} / h
κ_j	Affinity of drug A for species type j	0.1 mL / μ g
φ_j	Diffusion coefficient	0.1 mm ² / s
A_0	Initial drug concentration	2 μ g / mL
C_0	Initial carbon concentration	2 mg / mL

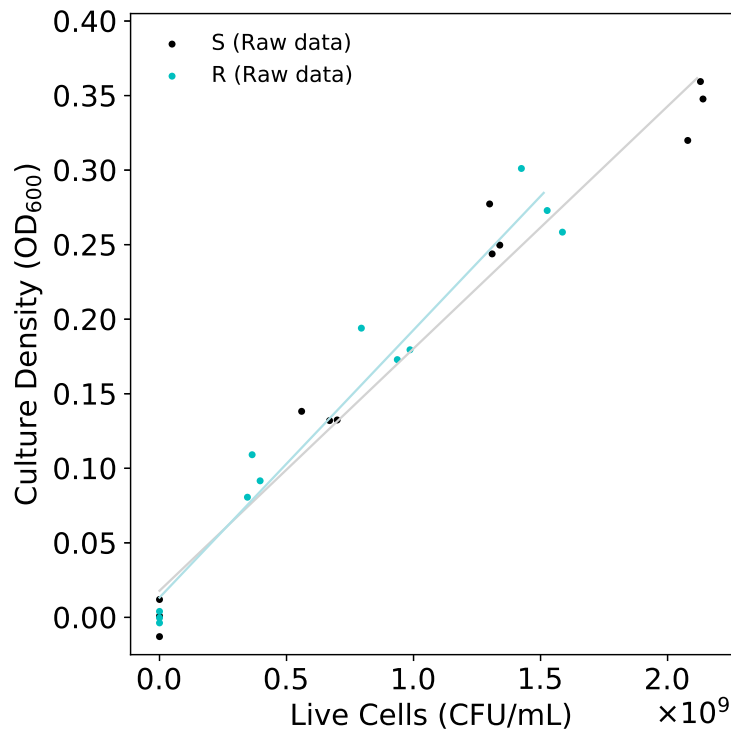
284 **VI. SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES**



285 **Figure S1. Drug concentration in individuals from species S_1 in pure and mixed growth conditions.** A–C) Theoretical dif-
 286 ference in relative drug content—antibiotic molecules per cell—of S_1 between pure culture conditions, and mixed culture
 287 with *drug-sensitive* S_2 . A), B) and C) illustrate the prediction when changing the parameter k , $\bar{\mu}$, and y , respectively. The
 288 difference is positive (>0) when the relative content of antibiotic is higher in pure culture conditions, whereas is negative
 289 (<0) when the content is higher in mixed culture conditions. Lack of difference is represented by a horizontal, dotted line.
 290 **D–F)** Theoretical difference in relative drug content—antibiotic molecules per cell—of S_1 between pure culture conditions,
 291 and mixed culture with *drug-insensitive* S_2 . A), B) and C) illustrate the prediction when changing the parameter k , $\bar{\mu}$, and
 292 y , respectively. The difference is positive (>0) when the relative content of antibiotic is higher in pure culture conditions,
 293 whereas is negative (<0) when the content is higher in mixed culture conditions. Lack of difference is represented by a hori-
 294 zontal, dotted line.



296 **Figure S2. Changes in relative fluorescence over time in both Wyl and GB(c) strains.** Raw change in fluorescence, per
297 optical density units, measured every 20min for 24h for *E. coli* Wyl (black) and GB(c). Each column represents the data set
298 for each tetracycline concentration used.



300 **Figure S3. Calibration curve to translate optical density data to number of *Escherichia coli* cells.** I fitted the linear
301 model $a = bx + c$ to optical density and colony counting data (dots) to calculate the number of optical density units
302 (OD_{600}) per cell. a denotes the optical density readings measured at 600nm, c the crossing point with the y -axis when
303 $x = 0$, and b the conversion factor between optical density and number of cells (x). I interpolating optical density readings
304 to calculate the number of cells within a culture as $x = (a - c)/b$. For the strain S, $b = 1.62 \times 10^{-10} OD \cdot mL \cdot CFU^{-1}$
305 and $c = 1.78 \times 10^{-2} OD$, whereas for R $b = 1.79 \times 10^{-10} OD \cdot mL \cdot CFU^{-1}$ and $c = 1.33 \times 10^{-2} OD$.