High-content imaging to phenotype antimicrobial effects on individual bacteria at scale

Sushmita Sridhar[1,2]¶, Sally Forrest[1]¶, Ben Warne[1], Mailis Maes[1], Stephen Baker[1], Gordon

Dougan[1]*, Josefin Bartholdson Scott[1]*

[1]Cambridge Institute of Therapeutic Immunology & Infectious Disease, University of

Cambridge Department of Medicine, Jeffrey Cheah Biomedical Centre, Puddicombe Way,

Cambridge Biomedical Campus, Cambridge CB2 0AW, United Kingdom

[2]Wellcome Sanger Institute, Hinxton, CB10 1SA, United Kingdom

¶These authors contributed equally

*Corresponding authors: e-mail: jb2143@cam.ac.uk & gd312@medschl.cam.ac.uk

Abstract

High-content imaging (HCI) is technique for screening multiple cells in high resolution to

detect subtle morphological and phenotypic variation. The method has been commonly

deployed on model eukaryotic cellular systems, often for screening new drugs and targets.

HCI is not commonly utilised for studying bacterial populations but may be powerful tool in

understanding and combatting antimicrobial resistance. Consequently, we developed a high-

throughput method for phenotyping bacteria under antimicrobial exposure at the scale of

individual bacterial cells. Imaging conditions were optimised on an Opera Phenix confocal

microscope (Perkin-Elmer) and novel analysis pipelines were established for both Gram-

negative bacilli and Gram-positive cocci. The potential of this approach was illustrated using

isolates of *Klebsiella pneumoniae, Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium, and

Staphylococcus aureus. HCI enabled the detection and assessment of subtle morphological

characteristics, undetectable through conventional phenotypical methods, that could

reproducibly distinguish between bacteria exposed to different classes of antimicrobials with

distinct modes of action (MOA). In addition, distinctive responses were observed between

susceptible and resistant isolates. By phenotyping single bacterial cells, we observed intra-

population differences, which may be critical in identifying persistence or emerging

resistance during antimicrobial treatment. The work presented here outlines a comprehensive

method for investigating morphological changes at scale in bacterial populations under

specific perturbation.

Importance

High-content imaging (HCI) is a microscopy technique that permits the screening of multiple

cells simultaneously in high resolution to detect subtle morphological and phenotypic

variation. The power of this methodology is that is can generate large datasets comprised of

multiple parameters taken from individual cells subjected to range of different conditions. We

aimed to develop novel methods for using HCI to study bacterial cells exposed to a range of

different antibiotic classes. Using an Opera Phenix confocal microscope (Perkin-Elmer) and

novel analysis pipelines we created a method to study the morphological characteristics of

Klebsiella pneumoniae, Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium, and *Staphylococcus*

aureus when exposed to antibacterial drugs with differing modes of action. By imaging

individual bacterial cells at high resolution and scale, we observed intra-population

differences associated with different antibiotics. The outlined methods are highly relevant for

how we begin to better understand and combat antimicrobial resistance.

Keywords

High-content imaging, image analysis, bacteria, antimicrobial resistance, phenotyping

Introduction

Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) is one of the greatest current challenges in human health, with rising cases of antimicrobial resistant bacterial infections and a lack of new classes of licensed antimicrobials. Advances in bacterial genomics have revolutionised our ability to genotype antimicrobial resistant bacterial isolates at scale. However, it remains critical to link genotype with phenotype in order to interpret the biological and clinical relevance of AMR. Some phenotyping methods have been adapted to work at scale (e.g. antimicrobial susceptibility testing using semi-automated platforms such as the bioMérieux VITEK system), yet many others either rely on low throughput methods or aggregate data from mixed populations of bacterial cells. The analysis of bulk bacterial populations rather than individual cells potentially overlooks persister cells or the emergence of resistant or tolerant bacteria within that population. High throughput imaging of bacterial populations at the scale of individual cells has received limited attention but may be achieved by exploiting high-content microscopy.

High-content imaging (HCI) can be utilised as a powerful phenotypic screening approach that combines automated microscopy with image analysis to quantify multiple morphological features. This approach may capture subtle differences in structure and shape not discernible by the human eye or conventional phenotypic methods. Such image-based profiling has great potential in high-throughput drug screening, which has mainly been applied to eukaryotic cells and tissue(1, 2). In the field of microbiology, HCI has predominantly been used to study intracellular pathogens such as *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*(3–6) and *Salmonella* species as they interact with host cells(7), but only recently to screen individual bacteria growing as a population in batch culture(8, 9). Pogliano and colleagues developed a bacterial cytological profiling assay to identify morphological changes in *Escherichia coli* and other species in

response to different classes of antimicrobials using fluorescence microscopy(10–13).

Analysis of image data enabled the assignment of distinct morphological profiles correlating

with the mechanism of action of the antimicrobial compounds tested(10). This method

opened up a novel way of screening new therapeutic compounds simultaneously for efficacy

and mode-of-action (MOA) using bacterial imaging(8–13).

Given the variety of AMR mechanisms harboured by bacterial species and, in many cases, by

isolates of the same species, it is important to optimise HCI approaches for a range of

bacteria. In this study, we developed and optimised a high-throughput imaging method based

on HCI to systematically screen individual bacteria from three different species grown under

antimicrobial exposure. We optimised bacterial imaging conditions using an Opera Phenix

confocal microscope (Perkin Elmer) and established novel analysis pipelines for image

segmentation and bacterial morphological analysis for both Gram-negative bacilli and Gram-

positive cocci. The combination of HCI and image analysis enabled the detection of subtle

morphological characteristics that differed between different antimicrobial classes. This work

contributes to the expansion of microbial phenotyping from population-level to single-cell

analysis and provides a comprehensive method of bacterial phenotypic screening at scale.

Materials and Methods

Bacterial isolates

A number of reference bacterial isolates, representing clinically important species, were

analysed. This panel included one Gram-positive (*Staphylococcus aureus*) and two Gram-

negative (*Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium and *Klebsiella pneumoniae*) species.

Two isolates were included per species, each with broadly different antimicrobial

susceptibility profiles (Table 1).

Antimicrobial susceptibility testing

Antimicrobial susceptibility testing was performed for a range of clinically relevant

antimicrobials with different MOAs (Table 1). Minimum Inhibitory Concentrations (MICs)

were determined by ETESTs (bioMérieux) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Briefly, pure bacterial cultures were diluted in saline to 0.5 MacFarland standard, 100 µl of

solution was inoculated and spread onto Isosensitest plates (Oxoid, CM0471), and an ETEST

strip was placed on top. Plates were incubated for 16-18 hours at 37°C before the result was

read.

Preparation of plate coatings

Coating matrices were prepared according to manufacturer recommendations in sterile

conditions (Table S1). All coatings, except poly-L-lysine, were incubated in ultra-thin 96

well plates (Perkin Elmer CellCarrier Ultra, 6655308) overnight at 37°C. The following day,

wells were rinsed 1-3 times with wash buffer (Table S1). For poly-L-lysine, wells were

coated for 5 minutes. The solution was aspirated, and wells were left to dry overnight at

37°C.

Bacterial imaging assay

Overnight bacterial cultures were diluted in LB broth and mixed with antimicrobials to a final

antimicrobial concentration of 5x MIC. Where an MIC could not be measured (i.e., where

bacterial growth continued along the whole length of the ETEST), the upper limit of the

ETEST was arbitrarily used in place of the MIC. The bacteria were incubated with and

without antimicrobials in static incubators in ultra-thin 96 well plates for 2 hours at 37°C.

The plates were aspirated, and the remaining adherent bacteria were fixed with 4%

paraformaldehyde (Alfa Aesar, J61899.AK) for 10 minutes. The wells were washed once

with 50µl of DPBS (Thermo, 10010023) before staining. Fixed cells were stained with FM4-

64 (2µg/ml, Thermo, T13320), SYTOX green (0.25µM, Thermo, S7020) and 4′,6-

Diamidino-2-phenylindole dihydrochloride (DAPI, 2µg/ml, Sigma, D9542). Staining was

performed at ambient temperature for 20 minutes in the dark followed by a wash with 50µl

PBS. Finally, 50µl of PBS was added to wells and the plates were imaged within 24 hours.

High-content imaging and image analysis

High-content confocal imaging was performed using an Opera Phenix (Perkin Elmer), using

a 63x water immersion lens. 10 fields of view (equating to 0.4 mm^2) were imaged for each

well, with 3 z-stacks per field at 0.5 µm intervals to ensure comprehensive imaging of the

bacterial monolayer. Triplicate biological and technical replicates were performed for all

experiments. Image analysis was performed using Harmony (v4.9). Optical correction was

performed using flatfield and brightfield correction. The detailed full analysis pipelines are

shown in Table S1 and S2. Data were exported and plotted in GraphPad Prism and R(14).

Results

High-content imaging and analysis of individual bacteria

An HCI workflow was established using two reference isolates from each of the three

bacterial pathogens *S*. Typhimurium, *K. pneumoniae,* and *S. aureus* (Figure 1A; Table 1).

Organisms were selected to have contrasting AMR profiles within each species. Each of the

isolates was exposed to different antimicrobial agents, and HCI was used to collect

phenotypic data for numerous individual bacteria within each assay. To this end, overnight

bacterial cultures were grown in 96-well microtiter plates in the presence or absence of each

antimicrobial for two hours to capture multiple early morphological changes. The

antimicrobials used are listed in Table 1. To capture images, the bacteria in each well were

stained *in situ* with markers for the cell membrane (FM4-64), nucleic acid (DAPI), and

membrane permeability (SYTOX green)(10) (Figure 1B). Imaging was performed on an

Opera Phenix and image analysis was conducted using Harmony software.

As both rod- and cocci-shaped bacteria were imaged at the single cell scale, it was necessary

to build separate, parallel pipelines for accurate analysis of microorganisms with different

morphology. Examples of image segmentation and analysis of Gram-negative rods and

Gram-positive cocci are shown in Figure 2 and detailed in Table S2 and Table S3,

respectively. Images of Gram-negative rods were initially filtered using FM4-64 intensity

patterns to enhance stained objects and subtract the background (Figure 2A). All images were

then calculated based on DAPI and FM4-64 intensity and resized to include both cytosolic

(DNA) and membrane regions; filtering was performed to remove artefacts such as

incomplete bacterial bodies (Figure 2A and C). Morphological features and stain intensities

were calculated for each defined bacterial cell, including area, roundness, width and length,

as well as various measures of the intensity, symmetry and distribution of each of the FM4-

64, DAPI and SYTOX green channels within each object (Figure 2B and D). For Gram-

negative rods, the segmented objects were further classified as either single bacterial cells,

dividing cells, or artefacts (Figure 2B) with a manually trained linear classifier using

Harmony PhenoLOGIC. Subsequent analyses were conducted on the single cells only. The

number of individual bacteria captured and analysed per well was dependent on isolate and

treatment but was a minimum of 2,000 bacteria per untreated well for all replicates.

Optimising bacterial imaging

The bacterial isolates displayed different degrees of adhesion to the base of the 96-well

plates, which significantly affected the image quality and downstream analysis. For example,

the non-motile *K. pneumoniae* isolates spontaneously strongly adhered to the bottom of the

wells, whereas the motile *S.* Typhimurium isolates displayed relatively poor adhesion

resulting in blurry superimposed images of the flattened z-stack (maximum projection)

(Figure S1A and B). Consequently, it was necessary to assess multiple plate coating

conditions for each *S.* Typhimurium isolate to identify the optimal conditions for binding and

image clarity. Ultimately, the image segmentation pipelines were used to quantify individual

bacteria on 11 commercially available coating matrices (thick and thin rat tail collagen,

Matrigel, vitronectin, fibronectin, Cell-Tak, laminin, wheat germ agglutinin (WGA), poly-L-

lysine, gelatine, and mouse collagen) in comparison to non-coated wells (Table S1).

The optimal coating conditions were found to differ between species, and to a lesser extent

for each isolate (Figure 3). The *K. pneumoniae* isolates displayed the best adhesion and image

quality on non-coated, WGA, and fibronectin-coated plates (Figure 3A, Figure S2A).

Therefore, all subsequent experiments with these isolates were conducted on non-coated

wells. In contrast, image quality and the number of adherent *S.* Typhimurium bacteria

improved dramatically upon optimization of the plate coating (Figure S1C). Both *S.*

Typhimurium isolates displayed very poor adhesion to non-coated wells (Figure 3B; Figure

S2B), but adhered sufficiently, although to different extents, to wells coated with thick rat tail

collagen, Matrigel, and vitronectin (Figure 3B; Figure S2B), with collagen and vitronectin

being the optimal conditions for NCTC 13347 and NCTC 13348 adhesion, respectively.

While different coatings were chosen for the two isolates, it would have been feasible to use

the same coating, as the number and image quality of adhered organisms on rat tail collagen,

Matrigel, and vitronectin were sufficient for analysis. To overcome any residual lack of

adhesion of *S.* Typhimurium, image analysis of these isolates was performed on individual

planes rather than a maximum projection of three z-stacks.

The two *S. aureus* isolates displayed different adhesion properties, with ATCC 29213

showing increased adhesion on vitronectin, fibronectin, Cell-Tak, WGA, and gelatin-coated

wells, whereas NCTC 6571 only had sufficient cell counts on thin collagen and fibronectin

coated wells (Figure 3C). Taking adhesion and image clarity (Figure S2C) into account, thin

collagen and vitronectin were used for optimal adhesion of NCTC 6571 and NCTC 29213,

respectively.

Measuring distinct morphological changes in response to antimicrobial compounds

To measure the phenotypic effects of antimicrobials with distinct mechanisms of action

(MOAs), bacteria were incubated with 11 commercially available antimicrobials for 2 hours

and imaged as described above. Antimicrobials were used at 5x the MIC determined by

ETEST, or 5x the highest concentration tested if an isolate had an MIC higher than the

ETEST range (Table 1). Figure 4A, 5A, and 6A show examples of the observed

morphological changes at 2h post-treatment for a non-motile (*K. pneumoniae* NCTC 43816*)*

and a motile Gram-negative rod (*S.* Typhimurium NCTC 13348), and a Gram-positive coccus

(*S. aureus* ATCC 29213*)*, respectively.

There were notable differences that the pipeline was able to capture between the effects of the

same antimicrobials on Gram-negative versus Gram-positive bacteria, with more visually

striking morphological changes observed in the Gram-negative bacteria. The established

image analysis pipelines produced mean and standard deviation measurements for >90

morphological features and stain intensities for each bacterium imaged (Table S4-6). These

measurements were combined for each isolate and analysed using principal component

analysis (PCA). Technical replicates of each class of antimicrobial separated into distinct

clusters based on MOA (Figure 4B, 5B and 6B, Figure S3), and biological replicates

produced similar distribution by PCA, demonstrating assay reproducibility (Figure S4).

Although separate pipelines were required for Gram-positive and Gram-negative organisms,

each pipeline was able to distinguish a wide variety of phenotypes generated by antimicrobial

treatment, segmenting the images and identifying individual bacteria despite the

morphological changes associated with each antimicrobial (Figure S5).

Antimicrobials acting on similar cellular processes generally induced comparable

morphological changes in each species, and these were found to cluster in a PCA. Bacteria

treated with tigecycline and gentamicin, which block protein synthesis by binding the 30S

ribosomal subunit, clustered proximally for all Gram-negative isolates tested (Figure 4B, 5B).

In addition, these generally also clustered near rifampicin and azithromycin treated bacteria

(Fig 4B, 5B); these antimicrobials affect protein synthesis by inhibiting RNA polymerase or

translation by binding the 50S ribosomal subunit, respectively. Antimicrobials that inhibit

DNA synthesis (trimethoprim/sulphamethoxazole), DNA replication (ciprofloxacin) and cell

wall synthesis (ampicillin, cefuroxime and meropenem) tended to induce an elongated

phenotype and again clustered proximally (Fig 4B, 5B). Notably, meropenem clustered

separately to the other β-lactams for the *Klebsiella* isolates and appeared to disrupt the

bacterial cell wall more potently, causing the bacteria to swell and lyse instead of elongating

(Figure 4, S3A). *K. pneumonia* NCTC 13438 was resistant to ampicillin,

trimethoprim/sulphamethoxazole, cefuroxime and ciprofloxacin at concentrations higher than

the ETEST scale, and with the exception of ciprofloxacin, these clustered with the untreated

control (Figure S3A). A similar phenotype was observed for *S.* Typhimurium NCTC 13348

treated with ampicillin (Figure 5B). This highlights that HCI screens provide novel data

regarding drug susceptibility as well as MOA.

The morphological changes observed for *S. aureus* were relatively subtle compared to those

for the Gram-negative isolates (Figure 6A). Only ciprofloxacin induced a visually discernible

phenotypic change, which was associated with enlarging bacterial area. However, after image

analysis, each antimicrobial effectively separated into unique clusters by PCA, except

trimethoprim/sulphamethoxazole, which clustered alongside the untreated controls. (Figure

6B, S3C, S5). This finding suggests that the analysis could discriminate between very subtle

cellular variation by capturing and analysing a large number of phenotypic parameters.

Measuring the relative importance of specific morphological and fluorescence intensity

parameters

To assess the quality of the image analysis we calculated the Z prime (Z') values using

Harmony, comparing treated and untreated bacteria for each species and antimicrobial

combinations (Table S7-9), where an ideal assay should yield values between 0.5 and 1(15).

The Z' values were higher for antimicrobials that clustered further from the untreated control

in the PCA, and the Gram-negative isolates generally had more Z' values above 0.5 than the

Gram-positive isolates. For example, the trimethoprim/sulphamethoxazole-treated *S. aureus*

ATCC 29213 failed to separate from the untreated control by PCA, which correlated with

poor Z' values (Table S9). Similarly, poor Z' values were obtained for azithromycin-treated

K. pneumoniae NCTC 43816 (which is intrinsically resistant to macrolides) and gentamicin-

treated *S.* Typhimurium NCTC 13348 (Table S7-8).

To highlight the relative importance of some of the measured parameters with high Z' values,

differences in measurements across representative antimicrobials were compared.

Morphological measurements of roundness, area and length-to-width ratio (Figure 7), as well

as threshold compactness and the radial relative deviation of the DAPI and FM4-64 staining

patterns, were plotted for a selection of antimicrobials with different MOAs (Figure S6). In

addition, SYTOX green intensity was included as this should only stain bacteria if membrane

integrity has been compromised (Figure S6 M-O).

When plotting these parameters individually, clear differences were observed between the

different antimicrobials for the *K. pneumoniae* isolates and, to a lesser extent, the *S.*

Typhimurium isolates. For example, increased area, decreased roundness, increased length-to

-width ratio and FM4-64 and DAPI radial relative deviation correlated with the observed

elongation phenotype observed for cefuroxime and ciprofloxacin (Figure 7 A, B, D, E, G, H

and Figure S6 A, B, D, E). In contrast, increased FM4-64 and DAPI threshold compactness

as well as bacterial roundness was observed for rifampicin and tigecycline (Figure 7 D, E,

and Figure S6 G, H, J, K).

Generally, SYTOX green intensity was higher for antimicrobials disrupting the bacterial

membrane for both Gram-negative (meropenem) and Gram-positive isolates (oxacillin).

However, the effect of individual parameters on *S. aureus* were subtler than for the Gram-

negative isolates, with only gentamicin treatment showing slightly decreased roundness and

increased length-to width ratio (Figure 7 F and I), demonstrating the need to observe multiple

combined phenotypic parameters.

Phenotypes within a bacterial population

Using violin plots, it was possible to visualize the population density and distribution of

bacteria for any given parameter. This analysis demonstrated the inherent morphological

heterogeneity in bacterial populations of the same isolate under the same growth conditions

(Figure 7 and S6). For example, certain antimicrobial treatments yielded a high degree of

heterogeneity in the length-to-width ratio, notably cefuroxime and ciprofloxacin treated *K.*

pneumoniae NTCT 43816 (Figure 8). In contrast, rifampicin treatment appeared to yield

decreased variability within a population as compared to untreated controls (Figure 8). By

phenotyping single cells, it is possible to observe within-population differences, which is

critical for identifying persistence or emerging resistance during antimicrobial treatment.

Discussion

In this study we optimised an experimental pipeline for high-throughput confocal imaging of

motile and non-motile bacteria in liquid culture. We used this method for systematic

screening of Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria under antimicrobial pressure, with

robust and standardised image analysis pipelines to efficiently and reproducibly measure

distinct morphological changes correlating with antimicrobial MOA. This analysis was built

around profiling the subtle morphological phenotypes of individual bacteria in a culture,

providing information on the whole population and variation within that population.

There is a number of advantages to using HCI for bacterial research. It provides flexibility in

experimental design, with the ability to customise and compare growth conditions and

individual isolates from different species in high throughput. Traditional phenotyping

methods rely on the collective properties of large numbers of bacteria, HCI enables

measurements at the scale of individual bacterial cells. Advances in image analysis permit

reliable segmentation of bacterial images and rapid, detailed profiling of individual bacterial

cells with the ability to demonstrate the heterogeneity of bacterial phenotypes in any given

environment.

Our work identified some challenges in using HCI for bacterial research, in particular

variation in adhesion to microtiter plates. Poor adhesion influences both image quality and

the number of bacteria successfully imaged for downstream analysis. This challenge was

overcome by testing a range of coating matrices, which demonstrated substantial inter- and

some intra-species variation in their ability to adhere to each substrate. For example, there

were notable differences in adhesion between the non-motile *K. pneumoniae* and motile *S.*

Typhimurium. *K. pneumoniae* possess an array of adhesins that allow them to adhere and

persist in different environments, which have contributed to their emergence as an important

nosocomial pathogen(16, 17). In contrast, *S.* Typhimurium relies on motility and more

specific cellular interactions and invasion for causing infection(7). These factors highlight the

need to optimise imaging conditions for each bacterial isolate. However, for most isolates,

more than one coating condition was sufficient for downstream analysis, making it possible

to screen multiple isolates in parallel using the same plate coating for the higher throughput

assays.

One of the most challenging aspects of image analysis was the segmentation and

identification of individual bacteria. This is in part because most existing image analysis

software is designed primarily to analyse images of eukaryotic cells. However, analysis

pipelines to effectively segment both rod- and cocci-shaped bacteria were created using

existing image analysis tools in the Harmony software. Though the analysis pipelines in this

study were created using Harmony, which is a proprietary software from Perkin Elmer, there

are open access image analysis software options available - for example CellProfiler(18) and

Cellpose(19)– which have similar analysis capabilities.

It was necessary to produce separate pipelines for cocci and rod-shaped bacteria for the initial

segmentation. Other studies have also utilised different pipelines for phenotypically variant

species; for example, the analysis used by Zoffmann and colleagues for *E. coli* was not

suitable for *Acinetobacter baumannii,* as these species differ in size and shape(8).

Importantly, the pipelines created in our study could be used to reproducibly segment bacteria

in all growth conditions used, even as morphologies changed due to antimicrobial exposure.

Distinct morphological changes were observed in response to different classes of

antimicrobials, with different effects observed in Gram-negative versus Gram-positive

species. However, bacteria from the same species generally displayed similar morphological

distributions by principal component analysis when treated with 5x the MIC, correlating with

antimicrobial mechanism. In addition, different clustering was observed between susceptible

and resistant isolates, allowing for simultaneous evaluation of potency as well as MOA.

The phenotypic changes identified in this study in the presence of antimicrobials are

comparable to previous imaging studies in *Enterobacteriaceae*, including bacterial

enlargement with carbapenems and cephalosporins(20, 21), compaction of the nucleoid with

antimicrobials targeting the bacterial ribosome(22) and filamentous elongation in the

presence of fluoroquinolones(23). In agreement with other studies, we identified similar

morphological changes in isolates of *K. pneumoniae* and *S.* Typhimurium to those previously

reported for *E. coli* in response to a range of antimicrobial classes(10), but here we employed

a simplified method by removing centrifugation steps and by imaging directly in wells rather

than on agarose pads. This facilitates higher throughput and scalability.

The fluorescent staining protocol previously optimised by Nonejuie *et al.*(10) worked well

across all the isolates tested in this study. FM4-64 stains the cell membrane, and the staining

patterns should relate to membrane integrity. DAPI and SYTOX green both stain nucleic

acids, but only DAPI is permeable through an intact cell membrane, making SYTOX green

intensity an additional measurement of membrane integrity after antimicrobial exposure(24,

25). In addition, nucleic acid stains can distinguish between subtle alterations in nucleic acid

distribution patterns. Plotting individual phenotypic parameters was sufficient when an

antimicrobial induced a strong visual phenotypic effect, for example, length-to-width ratio

could be used for ciprofloxacin or cefuroxime treated *K. pneumoniae*. However, in most

cases, and in particular for the smaller cocci-shaped *S. aureus* isolates where the phenotypic

effects were subtler, a combination of morphological as well as stain intensities, distribution

and symmetry measurements were required to efficiently evaluate the data. This highlights

that the software can detect important variations that are not obvious in conventional

phenotypic methods.

Our methods contribute to moving microbial phenotyping from a population-based analysis

to the scale of individual bacterial cells and provides a comprehensive method of bacterial

phenotypic screening at scale. This approach has a wide range of applications, but the ability

to provide analysis of diverse collections of isolates simultaneously in a range of growth

conditions gives it important potential in the fight against AMR. In addition to existing roles

in compound screening for antimicrobial efficacy and simultaneous MOA prediction(26), the

technology could be used for more detailed mechanistic follow up studies using mutant

libraries to assess genes that are protective against individual drugs(27). Large numbers of

compounds and bacterial isolates, representing species with diverse genetic backgrounds, can

be screened at scale. We have previously shown the utility of bacterial HCI for therapeutic

antibody screening(9), and there is potential to assess synergy between antimicrobials and

monoclonal antibodies against multi-drug resistant bacteria that would be challenging using

other platforms. Importantly, by analysing individual bacteria within a culture, it is possible

to detect differential effects and persister cells during drug treatment and be able to truly

evaluate the efficacy of a compound.

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Data Availability

All data underlying the results are available in the supplementary files associated with the

article.

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Figures and Tables

Table 1: **Minimum Inhibitory Concentrations**.

Species	ID	Ampicillin	Azithromycin	Trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole	Ciprofloxacin	Gentamicin	Rifampicin	Meropenem	Tigecycline	Cefuroxime	Oxacillin	Vancomycin
K. pneumoniae	NCTC 13438	>256*	32	>32*	>32*	6	16	0.125	0.094	>256*	ND	ND
K. pneumoniae	ATCC 43816	64	2	0.5	0.16	1.5	>32*	0.125	0.5	1.5	ND	ND
S. Typhimurium	NCTC 13347	0.5	2	0.25	0.012	2	16	0.125	0.19	3	ND	ND
S. Typhimurium	NCTC 13348	>256*	3	0.25	0.012	3	24	0.064	0.19	3	ND	ND
S. aureus	NCTC 6571	ND	ND	0.125	0.094	2	ND	ND	ND	ND	0.19	1
S. aureus	ATCC 29213	ND	ND	0.19	0.25	2	ND	ND	ND	ND	0.38	1.5

538   MICs were determined by ETEST and are presented in µg/ml. * indicates the MIC is above the highest antimicrobial concentration on the

539   ETEST; ND indicates that MIC was not determined.

542   DAPI   FM4-64   Sytox Green   merged channels

Figure 1: Bacterial high-content imaging. (**A**) Schematic of the bacterial high-content

imaging workflow. Overnight bacterial cultures are added to ultra-thin bottom plates, and

incubated, with or without antimicrobial compounds. Adherent bacteria are fixed and stained

before being imaged on an Opera Phenix high-content confocal microscope using a 63x water

immersion objective. Images were analysed using Harmony software and data was exported

and plotted in R. (**B**) Representative image of *K. pneumoniae* NCTC 43816 stained with

FM4-64 (cell membrane), DAPI (nucleic acid, membrane permeable) and SYTOX green

(nucleic acid, membrane impermeable).

Figure 2: Harmony bacterial image analysis workflow for Gram-negative rods (A-B)

and Gram-positive cocci (C-D). (A) Using basic brightfield correction and maximum

projection, images were segmented by filtering the images using texture properties based on

the FM4-64 channel to remove any background. The image region was filled and resized and

border objects were excluded to include only whole objects. The image region was further

calculated using FM4-64 and DAPI fluorescence and individual bacteria were defined.

(*single planes were analysed for *S.* Typhimurium) **(B)** Bacterial morphology and stain

intensity properties were calculated using DAPI, SYTOX Green and FM4-64 fluorescence.

Finally, a linear classifier was used to train the software to define single bacterial cells and

exclude any artefacts. (**C**) Using basic brightfield correction and maximum projection, the

bacterial region was defined using a calculated image based on DAPI and FM4-64 channels.

Individual bacteria were identified within the image region, and the bacterial regions were

defined and resized into individual bacterial cells. Any artefacts were removed using size

filters. (**D**) Bacterial morphology and stain intensity properties were calculated using DAPI,

SYTOX Green and FM4-64 fluorescence.

Figure 3: **Optimising plate coating for bacterial adhesion.** Isolates were grown in ultra-

thin 96 well plates on different surface matrices and the Harmony analysis pipelines were

used to count the number of adherent bacteria after fixing, washing and staining. Graphs are

comparing the adhesion of two representative isolates of *K. pneumoniae* (A), *S.* Typhimurium

(B) and *S. aureus* (C) on each substrate. Error bars represent standard deviation of three

biological replicates.

Figure 4: Morphological effects on *K. pneumoniae* NCTC 43816 under antimicrobial

pressure. (**A**) Representative images of the effect of different antimicrobials on the *K.*

pneumoniae isolate NCTC 43816 in exponential growth phase after 2 hours of incubation.

588   Antimicrobials are grouped by similar cellular targets. Bacteria were stained with FM4-64,

589   DAPI and SYTOX green. Images were acquired on an Opera Phenix using a 63x water

590   immersion lens. (**B**) Three-dimensional principal component analysis of the mean and

591   standard deviation values of 62 morphological properties measured for single bacterial cells

592   in each well. Technical triplicate repeats are shown.

Figure 5: Morphological effects on *S*. Typhimurium NCTC 13348 under antimicrobial

pressure. (**A**) Representative images of the effect of different antimicrobials on the *S*.

Typhimurium isolate NCTC 13348 in exponential growth phase after 2 hours of incubation.

597   Antimicrobials are grouped by similar cellular targets. Bacteria were stained with FM4-64,

598   DAPI and SYTOX green. Images were acquired on an Opera Phenix using a 63x water

599   immersion lens. (**B**) Three-dimensional principal component analysis of the mean and

600   standard deviation values of 62 morphological properties measured for single bacterial cells

601   in each well. Technical triplicate repeats are shown.

Figure 6: Morphological effects on *S. aureus* ATCC 29213 under antimicrobial

pressure. (**A**) Representative images of the effect of different antimicrobials on the *S. aureus*

isolate ATCC 29213 in exponential growth phase after 2 hours of incubation. Antimicrobials

are grouped by similar cellular targets. Bacteria were stained with FM4-64, DAPI and

SYTOX green. Images were acquired on an Opera Phenix using a 63x water immersion lens.

(**B**) Three-dimensional principal component analysis of the mean and standard deviation

values of 62 morphological properties measured for single bacterial cells in each well.

Technical triplicate repeats are shown.

Figure 7: Comparison of individual basic morphological measurements. Violin plots of

bacterial area (A-C), bacterial roundness (D-F) and bacterial length-to-width ratio (G-I)

comparing *K. pneumoniae* NCTC 43816 and *S.* Typhimurium NCTC 13348 treated with

meropenem, cefuroxime, rifampicin, tigecycline and ciprofloxacin, and *S. aureus*

ATCC29213 treated with ciprofloxacin, vancomycin, gentamicin and oxacillin, with

untreated controls.

Figure 8: Example of population-level length heterogeneity of *K. pneumoniae* NCTC 43816. Violin plot of bacterial length-to-width ratio comparing untreated, rifampicin treated, and ciprofloxacin treated *K. pneumoniae* NCTC 43816 with inset images demonstrating the different phenotypes observed in the same growth conditions within a single well.

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