Artesunate, EDTA and colistin work synergistically against MCR-negative and

-positive colistin-resistant *Salmonella*

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Running title: Synergy of artesunate, EDTA and colistin

Abstract

Discovering new strategies to combat the multi-drug resistance bacteria constitutes a major medical challenge of our time. Previously, artesunate (AS) has been reported to exert antibacterial enhancement activity in combination with β-lactam antibiotics, via inhibition of the efflux pump AcrB. However, combination of AS and colistin (COL) revealed weak synergistic effect against a limited number of strains, and few studies have further explored its possible mechanism of synergistic action. In this paper, we found that AS and EDTA could strikingly enhance the antibacterial effects of COL against $mcr-1^-$ and $mcr-1^+$ *Salmonella* strains either *in vitro* or *in vivo*, when used in triple combination. The excellent bacteriostatic effect was primarily related to the increased cell membrane damage, accumulation of toxic compounds and inhibition of MCR-1. The potential binding sites of AS to MCR-1 (THR283, SER284, and TYR287) were critical for its inhibition of MCR-1 activity. Additionally, we also demonstrated that the CheA of chemosensory system and virulence-related protein SpvD were critical for the bacteriostatic synergistic effects of the triple combination. Selectively targeting CheA, SpvD or MCR using the natural compound AS could be further investigated as an attractive strategy for treatment of *Salmonella* infection. Collectively, our work opens new avenues towards the potentiation of COL and revealed an alternative drug combination strategy to overcome COL resistant bacterial infections.

Keywords: artesunate/EDTA/colistin/triple combination/colistin resistant/*Salmonella*

Introduction

Salmonella is globally recognized as a major zoonotic foodborne pathogen, that responsible for food poisoning, gastroenteritis and even life threatening in animals and humans (Galán-Relaño *et al*, 2023, Gangathraprabhu, 2020). Antibiotics are commonly used to shorten duration of illness and reduce infectivity. However, with the increasing use of antibiotics, the infections caused by multi-drug resistant (MDR) pathogens, especially the carbapenemase-producing *Enterobacteriaceae*, have become the major source of public-health concerns (Foletto *et al*, 2021). The shortage of new antibiotics for these MDR bacteria strains has led to the re-use of polymyxins as the "last resort" antimicrobial drug with the inevitable risk of emerging resistance (Falagas & Kasiakou, 2005). Colistin (polymyxin E, COL), a fatty acyl oligopeptide antibiotic, is an active agent against Gram-negative (G⁻) pathogens, and has been widely used to combat *Salmonella* infections. Generally, COL kills bacteria through a detergent-like effect, that the polycationic ring of COL electrostatically interacted with the cell envelope components, causing the competitive displacement of divalent cations calcium (Ca^{2+}) and magnesium (Mg^{2+}), destabilizing the membrane, thus killing the bacterium via the "self-promoted uptake" pathway (Kaye *et al*, 2016). Beyond that, other models for the antibacterial activity have been reported, including vesicle-vesicle contact, hydroxyl radical death, inhibition of respiratory enzymes and anti-endotoxin COL activity pathways (El-Sayed Ahmed *et al*, 2020). Until now, numerous chromosomally- or plasmid-mediated mechanisms underlying polymyxins resistance in G⁻ bacteria have been identified, including intrinsic, mutation (eg. PmrAB, PhoPQ or AcrAB-TolC mutants), adaptation mechanisms or horizontally acquired resistance via the phosphoethanolamine (pEtN) transferase genes *mcr-1* to *9* (Carroll *et al*, 2019; Lima *et al*, 2018; Poirel *et al*, 2017).

To tackle the increasing emergence of MDR pathogens, many alternative therapies, less costly and

time-consuming than drug discovery, have been new areas of current research interest, involving the

combination therapy of existing agents, the drug discovery from natural products, and the evaluation of drug

resistance reversers (Rosenthal, 2003). A variety of antibiotic adjuvants that may or may not have direct

antibacterial effects have been widely investigated to increase the effectiveness of current antibiotics or delay

the emergence of drug resistance, such as β-lactamase inhibitors, aminoglycoside-modifying enzyme

inhibitors, membrane permeabilisers, and efflux pump inhibitors (Laws *et al*, 2019). Several promising

inhibitors, for example zidebactam and pyrazolopyrimidine compounds have been described as the β-lactam

and aminoglycoside enhancers against G^- bacteria (Moya *et al*, 2017; Stogios *et al*, 2013). Alternatively,

numerous synthetic antimicrobial peptides and plant-derived natural products have been shown to possess

membrane permeabilising or efflux pump inhibitory activity, with the combination of azithromycin,

ciprofloxacin, imipenem *et al* (Aron & Opperman, 2016; Lin *et al*, 2015; Su & Wang, 2018).

Artesunate (AS) is a semi-synthetic derivative of anti-malarial compound artemisinin that extracted from

the traditional Chinese herb Artemisia annua. Beyond remarkable antimalarial action, AS and other

artemisinin derivatives, eg. dihydroartemisinin (DHA), have been proven to restored the antibacterial effect of

COL against *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*), while themselves didn't exhibited intrinsic antimicrobial activity

against clinical *E. coli* isolates as well as ATCC 25922 (Wei *et al*, 2020; Zhou *et al*, 2022). In addition, AS has

also been proved to enhance the effectiveness of various β-lactam and fluoroquinolones antibiotics against

MDR *E. coli* via inhibiting the efflux pump AcrAB-TolC (Pan *et al*, 2020; Wei *et al*, 2020). Nonetheless, the

synergistic effect between AS and COL were only observed in a limited number of strains, with a modest

reversal effect. Therefore, few studies have been undertaken to evaluate its underlying mechanism. Under this

circumstance, it is meaningful to explore new drug combinations between AS and COL against MDR bacteria.

Encouragingly, in this study, we confirmed the prominent synergistic effects of AS and EDTA to restore the

antimicrobial activity of COL and its possible molecular mechanism.

Results

Artesunate and EDTA could enhance the effects of colistin against *Salmonella* strains

The antimicrobial activities of AS, EDTA or COL alone were initially investigated to the COL-sensitive

strains of *Salmonella* (JS, S34), COL-resistant clinical strains of *Salmonella* (S16, S20, S13, and S30), *E. coli*

(E16), and intrinsically COL-resistant species (*Morganella morganii* strain M15, *Proteus mirabilis* strain P01).

Results showed that AS or EDTA alone had no direct antibacterial activity against these strains, with the

minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs) 1250 or > 125 mg/L (Table supplement 1). Excepting for the two

intrinsically COL-resistant strains M15 and P01, there were only slight decrease of COL MICs for other

strains (fold changes ranging from 0 to 133), when the sub-inhibitory concentrations (1/4, 1/8, 1/16 MIC) of

AS or EDTA were combined with COL (namely AC or EC) (Table supplement 1). Whease, we found marked

decrease of COL MICs (up to 60000 fold), after three drug combinations (namely AEC) (Table 1). These

results indicated that when used simultaneously with COL, AS and EDTA exerted antibacterial enhancement

activity for *Salmonella* and *E. coli*, but not the intrinsically COL-resistant species. Thus, AS and EDTA could

be considered as adjuvants to reverse COL resistance in *Salmonella*.

To verify the antibacterial enhancement activity of AS and EDTA, the growth curves of *Salmonella* JS,

S16 (*mcr-1*⁻), and S30 (*mcr-1*⁺) for the combined treatments were generated within 24 h (Figure 1). Generally,

the higher concentration of COL (2 mg/L), either alone or in combinations, was found more effective against

these strains than that of the lower concentration (0.1 mg/L). Compared with the control groups, when these

bacteria were grown in the presence of COL alone (0.1 mg/L) or different drug combinations, the

antimicrobial activity were not significant after incubation for 24 h (Figure 1a, b, c). By contrast, higher

concentration of COL (2mg/L), alone or in combinations, showed better antibacterial activity, and a gradual

increase in antibacterial activity was observed: AEC > AC > EC > C (Figure 1d, e, f). It's worth noting that the

effect of different combinations against *mcr-1*[+] strain S30 was weaker than that of *mcr-1*[-] S16 and standard

sensitive strain JS.

Artesunate and EDTA enhanced the membrane-damaging effect of colistin on *Salmonella*

In order to gain insight into the membrane-damaging bactericidal mechanism of COL alone or combinations,

the damages to the bacterial outer and inner membrane (OM and IM) were severally monitored by measuring

the fluorescent intensity of *Salmonella* strains S16 and S30 mixed with NPN and PI. Overall, the fluorescence

signals of NPN and PI increased progressively with increases in the concentration of COL. After the treatment

of AEC, S16 and S30 both showed strongest fluorescence signals of NPN, compared to those of other groups

(Figure 2a, b). Nevertheless, AS treatment group also exerted a significant increase of fluorescent signal,

although it is not as strong as that of AEC treated group. Meanwhile, there were rapid and significant increase

in fluorescence of PI, when AEC or EC were added to bacterial cultures, and the two regimens played

dominant roles in low or high concentrations of COL, respectively (Figure 2c, d). Therefore, these results

indicated that the bacterial cell surfaces were severely damaged after the AEC treatment, via the rapid

perturbations of OM and IM. Subsequently, the morphological changes of *Salmonella* strain S16 treated with

different regimens were further investigated using Scanning electron microscope (SME) analysis to confirm

the above membrane-damaging effect. As shown in Figure 3, SEM micro-graphs of control and solvent treated

groups revealed that cells were short and rod-shaped, with rounded ends and intact cell membranes. As

expected, after exposure to COL alone and different regimens, noticeable damage to the OM were observed,

especially in AC and AEC treated group. Exposure to AC and AEC leading to cell damages characterized by

folds, crevices, and depressions, which further suggested that AS and EDTA combined with COL resulted in

remarkable bacterial membrane injury for antibacterial activity. Collectively, these data confirmed the

membrane-damaging effects of AS, EDTA and COL combination against *Salmonella*.

AEC combination could collapse the $\Delta\psi$ component of Proton Motive Force (PMF) in *Salmonella*

In bacteria, the PMF, alternatively known as electrochemical proton gradient, is result from the extrusion of

protons by the electron transport chain, and made up of the sum of two parameters: an electric potential ($\Delta\psi$)

and an osmotic component (ΔpH) (Farha *et al*, 2013). It has been reported to drives vital cellular processes in

bacteria, including ATP synthesis, antibiotic transport, and cell division (Le *et al*, 2021). Therefore, PMF

dissipation was considered as a promising strategy for combating microbial pathogens. In this work, we

explored whether the antibacterial synergism activities of different combinations were accompanied by

dissipation of PMF in cells. We uncovered that when compared to that of other groups, AEC treatment caused

a rapid collapse of $\Delta\psi$ component, as shown by the increase in fluorescence values of $DISC_3(5)$ (Figure 2e, f).

But none of these combinations observed significant dissipation of ΔPH, when compared to that of control

group (Figure 2g, h). The above results indicated that AEC treatment was able to dissipate selectively the $\Delta\psi$

component of PMF.

Other reactive oxygen species (ROS), not H_2O_2, contributed to the AS and EDTA-mediated efficacy

enhancement of COL

ROS including superoxide (O^{2-}), hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), and hydroxyl radical ($\cdot OH$), are commonly

generated during the electron transfer process, which has been considered to associated with the lethal action

of diverse antimicrobials. Subsequently, we investigated whether the addition of AS and EDTA could facilitate

the intracellular ROS generation and stimulate the ROS-mediated killing. As shown in Figure 2i, j, compared

to control group, total ROS increases in S16 and S30 strains were observed in AC and AEC groups either after

0.1 or 2 mg/L COL was added, but for COL alone and EC groups, the increase were only occured after the

addition of a relatively high COL concentration (2 mg/L). In addition, the ROS accumulation level was further

increased in AEC group, when extending the incubation time period to 6 h (Figure supplement 1). Moreover,

we found that H_2O_2 did not contribute to the increase of total ROS, as there was no significant difference in

intracellular level of H_2O_2 among all the groups Figure 2k, l. Collectively, these observations supported a role

for ROS in AS and EDTA-mediated efficacy enhancement of COL.

The transcriptome data exhibited more robust changes than that of metabolome among different

comparison groups.

A total of 6944 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were performed KEGG pathway enrichment analysis,

of which 1832 and 5112 transcripts were included in S16 and S30 strains, respectively (Figure supplement 2).

Several canonical pathways, including two-component system (TCS), flagellar assembly and ABC

transporters pathways, indicating similar directional changes in both strains were selected for further analysis,

as shown in Figure 4. Since AEC incubation has displayed excellent antibacterial effects, we expected to

screen the significantly differentially expressed genes (SDEGs) with similar variations in AEC vs. C, AEC vs.

AC, and AEC vs. EC groups, and the SDEGs involved in TCS (*pagC*, *cheA*, *ompF*, *et al.*), flagellar assembly

(*flgK*, *flgL*, *fliD*, *et al*) and ABC transporters (*oppuBB*, *osmX*, *gltI*, *dppA*, *et al.*) were selected (mostly

down-regulated) and summarized in Figure 5.

Unlike transcriptome changes, the metabolite alterations were much less abundant among AEC vs. C,

AEC vs. AC, and AEC vs. EC groups, either in S16 or S30 strain. Unluckily, we demonstrated that there were

low correlation between the metabolome and transcriptome data. According to the enrichment analysis,

archidonic acid metabolism (down-regulated), degradation of aromatic compounds (up-regulated), taurine and

hypotaurine metabolism (up-regulated) were the most prominent pathways showing differences primarily in

AEC vs. C group (Figure 6).

AS+EDTA+COL combination therapy is a promising therapeutic against *Salmonella* infection *in vivo*

The excellent bactericidal synergism against *Salmonella in vitro* of AEC combination further prompted us to

confirm the effect *in vivo* for *Salmonella* S30 (*mcr-1*[+]) infected mouse models. Consistent with the synergistic

bactericidal activity of AS, EDTA, and COL, the combination of AC (7.13 $\log_{10}$CFU/g Liver, 6.91 $\log_{10}$CFU/g

spleen), EC (7.33 $\log_{10}$CFU/g Liver, 6.88 $\log_{10}$CFU/g spleen), and AEC (6.51 $\log_{10}$CFU/g Liver, 6.52

$\log_{10}$CFU/g spleen) outperformed single-drug treatments of COL (7.44 $\log_{10}$CFU/g Liver, 7.05 $\log_{10}$CFU/g

spleen) and AS (7.54 $\log_{10}$CFU/g Liver, 7.02 $\log_{10}$CFU/g spleen). In particular, in the AEC combination

treated samples, there were far fewer bacteria burden in spleen and liver when compared to other groups

(Figure 7). These disparity *in vivo* further illustrate the synergy of AS and EDTA in combination with COL.

Discussion

Membrane-damaging played a crucial role in the synergistic antimicrobial effects of AS+EDTA+COL

combination

COL is an increasingly important antibiotic against serious infections caused by G⁻ bacteria. It damages both

the OM and IM layers of the cell surface by targeting LPS, displacing cations that form bridges between LPS

molecules, and thereby leading to disruption of the cell envelope and bacterial lysis (Sabnis *et al*, 2021). Our

data showed that the AEC combination could permit ingress of NPN fluorophore into the OM, as well as the

membrane impermeant dye PI into the IM, which fluoresces upon contact with DNA in the bacterial

cytoplasm (Figure 2a-d). Thus, it indicated AEC combination has punched holes in both the OM and IM of

whole bacterial cells. The considerably deformed of cell membranes observed by SEM further supported the

above results that the membrane integrity, and permeability were damaged after AEC incubation. Considering

that EDTA is used as a complexing agent, we tried to explore if it could assist COL to destroy the bacterial

membrane and reduce their survival by chelating cations that stabilize LPS and the outer membrane.

Nevertheless, we found minimal changes in MICs of different combinations to S16 and S30 strains, after

different cations (Na$^+$, K$^+$, Ca^{2+}, Mg^{2+}, Mn^{2+}, Zn^{2+}) were supplemented (Table supplement 2). In contrast, LPS

treatment resulted in dose-dependent changes in MICs of different combinations to S16 and S30 strains (Table

supplement 3), which indicated that LPS on cell membrane was a crucial target for AEC to injure cell

membrane and exert prominent antibacterial effects.

Whilst it is commonly believed that COL acts against G⁻ bacteria by cell membrane lysis, we

hypothesised that alterations in bacterial membrane lipid composition may also be a possible Achilles' heel to

increase efficacy of COL after the AEC incubation in this paper. The metabolomic results of AEC vs. C group

in this study showed a significant decrease of prostaglandins (PGs) in arachdonic acid metabolism pathway

(Figure 6). Arachidonic acid is a highly abundant long chain polyunsaturated fatty acid in vertebrates, which

have been proposed to have antibacterial roles. Exogenous Arachidonic acid has been reported to readily

incorporated into the synthesis pathways of membrane phospholipids, and exert detrimental effects on

membrane integrity by perturbing membrane ordering, altering membrane composition and increasing fluidity

(Eijkelkamp *et al*, 2018; MacDermott-Opeskin *et al*, 2022). PGs are lipid compounds derived from

arachidonic acid, which has been demonstrate to enhance biofilm development and fungal load in the murine

vaginae of *Candida albicans* (Ells *et al*, 2011). Therefore, we speculated that the down-regulated lipid

compounds PGs may lead to perturbtion of membrane phospholipids in cell membranes and reduce microbial

viability.

Accumulation of toxic compounds may also be held responsible for the membrane damage. We noted

that there were significant accumulation of styrene in both S16 and S30 strains (Figure 6). Styrene is naturally

present as a minor metabolite, that can be synthesized at low levels by several microorganisms, like

Pencillium camemberti and members of the *Styracaceae* family (Yeh *et al*, 2022). However, styrene itself is

toxic to most cell types, and its hydrophobic molecules could readily partition into bacterial membrane,

resulting in membrane disruption and cell death (Lian *et al*, 2016). Additionally, we found that the taurocholic

acid and protocatechuic acid were up-regulated respectively in S16 and S30 strains (Figure 6). Taurocholic

acid is usually a major component of the selective culture medium, for example MacConkey agar, for G⁻

bacteria, which has also been confirmed as a secondary metabolite of marine isolates and the soil bacterium

Streptococcus faecium. Sannasiddappa *et al* have proved that taurocholic acid were able to inhibit growth of

Staphylococcus aureus through increasing membrane permeability and disruption of the PMF (Sannasiddappa

et al, 2017). Protocatechuic acid has been demonstrated to exert antimicrobial effects by disrupting the cell

membranes, preventing bacterial adhesion and biofilm formation (Bernal-Mercado *et al*, 2018; Stojković *et al*,

2013). Consequently, these toxic compounds were anticipated to accelerate the destruction of cell membrane

and thus enhance the antibacterial activity.

The CheA of chemosensory system and virulence-related protein SpvD were critical for the

bacteriostatic synergistic effect of AEC combination

Flagellar motility is intimately connected to chemotaxis, biofilm formation, colonisation and virulence of

many bacterial pathogens. It is generally regulated by a chemotactic signaling system, which enables their

movement toward favorable conditions and invade their hosts (Bolton, 2015). The chemotaxis proteins CheA,

CheW, CheY, methyl-accepting chemotaxis proteins (MCPs) have already been identified as core components

and present in all chemotaxis systems (Minamino *et al*, 2022). The *Salmonella* flagellum is composed of about

30 different proteins, such as FliD (the filament cap), FlgK and FlgL (the hook-filament junction) *et al*

(Minamino *et al*, 2022). Tellingly, we have found an extensive down-regulation of chemotaxis and flagellar

assembly related genes in S16 and S30 strains after AEC incubation (Figure 5a-d). Meanwhile, the swimming

motility of the strains were decreased after AEC incubation (Figure supplement 5). The overexpression of

cheA in S16 strain, but not *cheY*, *STMDT2-34621*, *aer*, *fliD*, *fliT*, could lead to noticeable increases of MICs

by 4 to 32 fold, after EC or AEC incubation (Table supplement 4). These results suggested that the down

regulation of the central component of chemosensory system CheA may affect both chemotactic motility and

general structure of flagellum, thus attenuating *Salmonella* survival after AEC treatment.

In addition to the above findings, we also noted that there were relatively large number of SDEGs, most

of them were down-regulated, enriched in the ABC transports pathway in S16 and S30 strains after AEC

incubation (Figure 5e, f). ABC transporters are a class of transmembrane transporters, which mediate uptake

of micronutrients, including saccharides, amino acids, metal ions *et al* and have also been shown to protect

bacteria from hazardous compounds (Nguyen & Götz, 2016; Wang *et al*, 2023). The *opuBB* and *opuBA*

encode components of the ABC-type proline/glycine betaine transport system, and their up-regulation were

proved to promote accumulation of proline that acted as an osmoprotectant (Dupre *et al*, 2019). Similarly, the

OsmU osmoprotectant systems, consisting of OsmV, OsmW, OsmY, and OsmX, were identified to enable

bacterial survival at high-osmolarity through the accumulation of glycine betaine (Frossard *et al*, 2012). The

gltI gene encodes glutamate/aspartate transport protein, and its deletion in *E. coli* were shown to result in

attenuated survival under antibiotics, acid, and hyperosmotic stressors (Niu *et al*, 2023). Furthermore, the

dipeptide permease operon (*dpp*), especially *dppA*, has been reported as an essential enzyme for survival of

Mycobacteria tuberculosis under nutrient starvation conditions, and was associated with reduced bacterial

burden in chronically infected mice in knockout studies (Fernando *et al*, 2022). Nevertheless, the

overexpression of *opuBB*, *gltI*, *dppB* and *dppC* genes caused no detectable change in MICs for S16 strain after

AEC incubation (Table supplement 4). Thus, these observations suggest that overexpression of these SDEGs

in ABC transporters were not sufficient enough for causing changes in COL susceptibility, and additional

factors may be required for the excellent bactericidal activity of AEC.

Besides that, we also noticed that the expression levels of *Salmonella* infection related genes *sseJ*, *spvD*

and ribosomal protein genes *rpmJ*, *rpmE* were all strikingly changed in S16 strain (Figure supplement 4a).

SseL and SpvD are effectors of *Salmonella* pathogenicity islands 1 and 2 (SPI1 and SPI2), which are required

for full virulence during animal infections (Coombes *et al*, 2007; Grabe *et al*, 2016). The *rpmJ* gene codified a

part of 50S ribosomal subunit, and its up-regulation has been related to size increase and slow growth of *E.*

coli cells under starvation conditions (Peredo-Lovillo *et al*, 2019). The overexpression of *spvD* gene in S16

strain could attenuate the antibacterial activity of AC and AEC regimen with 4 fold increase in MICs (Table

supplement 4), which indicated that the virulence-related protein SpvD contributed to the increase of COL

susceptibility after AEC incubation.

Artesunate can be considered as a potential MCR-1 inhibitor that enhances the efficacy of colistin

During our research process, several phenomenon have caught our attention, that the synergistic effect of AEC

combination was irrelevant to whether the *mcr-1* gene exists or not, and the *mcr-1*⁻ strain S16 exhibited more

robust changes than that of *mcr-1*⁺ strain S30 in different KEGG pathways. These results indicated that AS

and EDTA were possible to exert synergistic effects by blocking the broad-spectrum resistance mechanisms

(eg. efflux pumps, membrane damage), and coupling with the drug-specific resistance mechanisms (eg.

MCR-1, β-lactamase). Previously, AS was capable of significantly enhancing the antibacterial activity of β

-lactam antibiotics against *E. coli*, via inhibition of the efflux pumps such as AcrB, NorA, NorB, and NorC

(Jiang *et al*, 2013; Li *et al*, 2011). Molecular docking experiments showed that AS could dock into AcrB very

well forming five hydrogen bonds with Ser46, Gln89 and Gln176 (Wu *et al*, 2013). Whereas, in this paper, the

inhibitory actions of different drug combinations on efflux pump were only observed in *mcr-1*⁻ strain S16,

regardless of whether AS was added (Figure supplement 4c). Therefore, we hypothesised that AS may exert

synergistic effects with COL against *mcr-1*⁺ S30 strain by targeting MCR-1 rather than efflux pump.

MCR-1 comprises two distinct domains, an N-terminal transmembrane domain and a soluble C-terminal

α / β / α   sandwich domain where the active site located. The active site contains a concentration of

metal-binding residues to accommodate between one and four zinc ions (Wei *et al*, 2018). Several crystal

structures of the soluble domain have been well studied, and six residues GLU246, THR285, HIS395, ASP465,

HIS466, and HIS478 were found conserved among pEtN transferases (Ma *et al*, 2016). Especially the

THR285 residue, which was highly conserved and providing a distinct electronegative potential to attract and

bind the substrate pEtN (Son *et al*, 2019). Mutations of these residues and stripping the metals by EDTA could

re-establish polymyxin B antibacterial action (Hinchliffe *et al*, 2017; Hu *et al*, 2016; Stojanoski *et al*, 2016).

In this paper, we firstly analyzed the relative expression of *mcr-1* in S30 strain after the incubation of different

drug combinations, and found a striking down-regulation of *mcr-1* gene whether after AC, EC incubation or

AEC incubation, when compered to that of A and E treatment (Figure supplement 4b). Additionally, we

performed the molecular docking between AS and MCR-1 to predict if there were possible interactions, and

found that AS could bind to the residues arrounding the reported key residues within MCR-1 of *E. coli*,

forming seven hydrogen bonds with THR283, SER284, TYR287, PRO481, and ASN482 residues (Figure

supplement 4e). The interaction between AS and MCR-1 was further proved by competitive inhibitory assays,

that the binding of AS with MCR-1 was blocked after the addition of polypeptide P_u (containing unmutated

THR283, SER284, and TYR287 sites) and lead to significant increases of MICs by 8 fold after AC or AEC

treatment (Table supplement 5). Nevertheless, we also noticed that the blocking effect could not be removed

by peptide P_m (containing mutated THR283, SER284, and TYR287 sites) when EDTA exists. We supposed

that EDTA may chelate zinc ions that required for MCR-1 activity. Thus, we suggested that AS could be

developed as the a MCR-1 inhibitor, and coupled with the chelating agent EDTA may favor to additionally

magnify its inhibitory effect.

A mixed blessing: the excellent antibacterial activity and potential toxicity of AEC combination

In the preceding years, several studies have reported on the synergistic effects of COL with different

candidates, such as antimicrobial agents, natural compounds and synthetically prepared molecules (Cui *et al*,

2024, Yi *et al*, 2022). Nevertheless, the potential toxicity of these combination therapy will be the prime

concern affecting their clinical application, and a similar concern has also been raised for the AEC

combination in this study. Although *in vitro* studies have determined that with increasing dose of AS and

EDTA, the antibacterial synergistic activity was gradually enhanced, and meanwhie, may also resulting in

more toxic side effects. Thus, In our study, the 1/8 MICs of AS and EDTA were selected to ensure excellent

antibacterial activity whereas minimize the potential toxicity. The toxic side effects of AEC combination may

be most probably caused by COL, which is well known to present several adverse toxic effects, and the

dose-dependent nephrotoxicity is the most reported (Lu *et al*, 2016, Visentin *et al*, 2017). Conversely, EDTA

and AS may be low toxicity. When used in combination with COL or AB569, EDTA has been proved to

synergistically overcome the COL-resistant *Klebsiella pneumonieae* and MDR *Acinetobacter baumannii* with

the concentration of 12000 mg/L and 73 mg/L, respectively (Bari *et al*, 2023, Bogue *et al*, 2021). These

concentrations were reported non-toxic to primary adult human skin (dermal) fibroblasts and other normal

body cells, which may also apply to the lower concentrations of EDTA (15.6 mg/L) used in AEC combination

(Shein *et al*, 2021). Additionally, AS has been found to exert multiple pharmacological actions including

anti-malaria, anti-tumor, anti-viral and anti-inflammatory effects, which has displayed a relatively safe toxicity

profile with the LD_{50} values being 4223 mg/kg (Cheong *et al*, 2020). However, the potential toxic effects of

AEC combination is still unknown and requires further investigations.

In summary, our results established that the combination of COL with AS and EDTA was a promising

candidate for combating infections caused by MCR-negative and -positive COL-resistant *Salmonella*. The

membrane-damaging effect, accumulation of toxic compounds, inhibition of MCR-1 were supposed to play

synergistic roles in reversing COL resistance of *Salmonella* (Figure 8). The CheA of chemosensory system

and virulence-related protein SpvD were critical for the bacteriostatic synergistic effects of AEC combination.

Selectively targeting CheA, SpvD or MCR using the natural compound AS could be further investigated as an

attractive strategy for treatment of *Salmonella* infection.

Materials and Methods

Bacteria strains and agents

A total of 9 bacteria strains were used in this study (Table 1), including a multidrug-susceptible standard strain

of *Salmonella* Typhimurium CVCC541 (named as JS), a COL-susceptible clinical strain of *Salmonella*

(named as S34), four COL-resistant clinical strains of *Salmonella* (named as S16, S20, S13, and S30), a

COL-resistant clinical strain of *Escherichia coli* (named as E16), and two strains of intrinsically COL-resistant

species (*Morganella morganii* strain M15 and *Proteus mirabilis* strain P01). COL was purchased from

Shengxue Dacheng Pharmaceutical, China. COL and EDTA-2Na were both dispersed into water at final

concentration of 640 mg/L and 10000 mg/L, respectively. AS was purchased from Meilunbio (Dalian, China)

and dissolved in water with 10% (V/V) N, N-dimethylformamide at a final concentration of 5000 mg/L. The

1-N-phenylnaphthylamine (NPN) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich, USA. Propidium iodide (PI) was

purchased from Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA. The 3,3-dipropylthiadicarbocyanine iodide $DiSC_3(5)$ and

ethidium bromide (EtBr) were purchased from Aladdin, China. BCECF-AM, Reactive Oxygen Species Assay

Kit, and Hydrogen Peroxide Assay Kit were purchased from Beyotime, China.

Antibacterial activity *in vitro*

1. Antimicrobial susceptibility testing. The MICs of COL, AS, and EDTA against all strains were determined by the 2-fold serial broth microdilution method according to CLSI guidelines (Wayne, 2021) The double and triple combination strategies were carried out as follow: AS (1/4, 1/8, or 1/16 MIC of AS)+ COL, EDTA (1/4, 1/8, or 1/16 MIC of EDTA) + COL, AS (1/4 MIC of AS)+ EDTA (1/4, 1/8, 1/16 or 1/32 MIC of EDTA) + COL, AS (1/8 MIC of AS)+ EDTA (1/4, 1/8, 1/16 or 1/32 MIC of EDTA) + COL. These medication strategies, including COL alone, AS + COL, EDTA + COL, AS + EDTA + COL, were abbreviated as C, AC, EC, and AEC, respectively. When determining the MICs of COL after drug combinations, AS or/and EDTA were pre-added into MHB broth with different final concentrations, namely 1/4, 1/8, 1/16 or 1/32 MIC of AS (312.5, 156.25, 78.13, 39.06 mg/L) or EDTA (for example 31.25, 15.63, 7.81, 3.91 mg/L for JS, S16 and S30 strains), then COL was added and diluted to make a 2-fold dilution series. The lowest concentrations with no visible growth of bacteria were defined as MIC values of COL after drug combinations.

2. Time-kill assays. Time-kill assays were performed against the *Salmonella* strains JS, S16 (*mcr-1*[-]), and S30 (*mcr-1*[+]) with COL alone as well as in combinations (AC, EC, AEC). When combined with COL (0.1 or 2 mg/L), AS and EDTA were added at final concentrations equivalent to their 1/8 MICs. Overnight cultures were diluted 1:100 in fresh LB medium and grown to an OD_{600} of 0.5, then treated with different combinations for 24 h. The cultures were serially diluted 10-fold and spreaded over sterile nutrient agar at 0.5, 4, 8, 12 and 24 h. Bacterial colonies on individual plates were counted after overnight incubationat 37 ℃ and expressed as the $\log_{10}$ of colony forming units/mL (CFU/mL).

Fluorescent probe-permeability assays

Overnight cultures of *Salmonella* strains S16 (*mcr-1⁻*) and S30 (*mcr-1⁺*) were diluted 1:100 in fresh LB

medium and grown to an OD_{600} of 0.7. Cells were harvested and washed twice with PBS or HEPES, then

re-suspended in the same buffer to $OD_{600} \approx 0.5$ for further analysis. Different drug combinations or

Fluorescent probes were added and incubated when necessary. The medication strategies used in the

fluorescence probe assays were as follow: C, AC, EC, and AEC. The final concentration of COL was 0.1 or 2

mg/L, when used alone or in drug combinations. AS and EDTA were added at final concentrations equivalent

to their 1/8 MICs, when used in drug combinations. Fluorescence intensity were measured with Spark 10M

microplate spectrophotometer (Tecan, Switzerland).

1. Cell membrane integrity assay. Bacterial suspensions in HEPES were mixed with either fluorescent probe

1-N-phenylnaphthylamine (NPN) or propidium iodide (PI) to a final probe concentrations of 10 µM for NPN

or 15 µM for PI. After incubation at 37℃ for 0.5 h, bacterial suspensions were then mixed with different

drug combinations and incubated for another 1 h. Fluorescence measurements were then taken with the

excitation wavelength at 350 nm (or 535 nm) and emission wavelength at 420 nm (or 615 nm) for NPN (or

PI).

2. Proton motive force assay. Bacterial suspensions in PBS were incubated with either

3,3-dipropylthiadicarbocyanine iodide ($DiSC_3(5)$, 0.5 µM) or pH-sensitive fluorescent probe BCECF-AM (20

µM) for 0.5 h to determine the membrane potential ($\Delta\psi$) and pH gradient (ΔpH). Then these suspensions were

mixed with different drug combinations and incubated for another 1 h. Finally, the fluorescence were

measured with the excitation wavelength of 622 nm (or 488 nm) and emission wavelength of 670 nm (or 535

nm) for $DiSC_3(5)$ (or BCECF-AM).

3. Total ROS measurement

The ROS-sensitive fluorescence indicator 2', 7'-dichlorodihydro-fluorescein diacetate (DCFH-DA, 10 µM)

was used to assess the ROS levels in bacterial cells. Bacterial suspensions in PBS were mixed with DCFH-DA

and incubated for 0.5 h, then different drug combinations were added and incubated for another 1 h and 6 h.

Finally, fluorescence intensity were measured at an excitation wavele of 488 nm and an emission wavelength

of 525 nm.

4. Efflux pump assay. Bacterial suspensions in PBS were incubated with ethidium bromide (EtBr) for 0.5 h,

in a final concentration of 5 µM. Then different drug combinations were added and incubated for another 1 h,

then the accumulation of EtBr in the cells were evaluated with excitation wavelength of 530 nm and barrier

filter of 600 nm.

H$_2$O$_2$ assay

The bacterial culture conditions and sample preparation were same as the fluorescent probe-permeability

assays section. The luminescence absorbancy were measured by a Spapk 10 M Microplate reader (Tecan,

Switzerland). The cellular H$_2$O$_2$ levels were assessed according to the kit procedure by using an Hydrogen

Peroxide Assay Kit. Cells samples were prepared as described above and incubated with different drug

combinations for 1.5 h. Cell precipitates were collected by centrifugation (10000 rpm), and 200 µL lysis

solution were added under gentle shaking. Supernatants were then taken for luminescence (Abosorbance)

detection at 560 nm.

Scanning electron microscope (SME)

Overnight S16 ($mcr\text{-}1^-$) culture was diluted 1:100 in fresh LB medium and grown to an OD_{600} of 0.7. Cells

were then divided equally and different drug combinations were added, same as that in the fluorescent

probe-permeability assays section. After 6 h incubation at 37 ℃, cells were washed three times with PBS and

fixed with 2.5% glutaraldehyde at 4 ℃ for 24 h. Samples were then stained in 1% osmium tetroxide and

dehydrated in a series of increasing ethanol concentrations (30% – 100%). The processed samples were dried

in Critical Point Dryer (Quorum K850) and sputter-coated with gold. Finally, samples were observed and

images were taken with SEM (HITACHI, SU8100).

Omics analysis

Overnight cultures of S16 ($mcr\text{-}1^-$) and S30 ($mcr\text{-}1^+$) were diluted 1:100 in fresh LB medium and grown to an

OD_{600} of 0.5. Cells were divided equally and different drug combinations were used, including C, AC, EC, and

AEC. When combined with COL (2 mg/L), AS and EDTA were added at final concentrations equivalent to

their 1/8 MICs. Samples were continually incubated 6 h, then washed three times with PBS and fast-frozen in

liquid nitrogen for further use. Transcriptome and metabolome analysis were performed among different

comparison groups, including AC vs. C, EC vs. C, AEC vs. AC, and AEC vs. EC, and carried out by

Novogene Co. Ltd (Beijing, China).

1. Transcriptome analysis

The clean reads were mapped to the *Salmonella* Typhimurium DT2 genome (HG326213.1) from NCBI using

Bowtie2. The SDEGs were screened with a p value ≤ 0.05 and |$\log_2$Fold Change| ≥ 1. ClusterProfiler

software were used to analysis the Gene Ontology functional enrichment (GO, https://geneontology.org/) or

Kyoto   Encyclopedia   of   Genes   and   Genomes   pathway   enrichment   (KEGG,

https://www.kegg.jp/kegg/pathway.html) of SDEGs.

2. Metabolome analysis

In this study, Samples were analyzed by the non-targeted metabolomics with Liquid Chromatography-tandem

Mass Spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) in either positive ion or negative ion mode. Compound Discoverer 3.1

software (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) was used for identification of metabolites based on the

exact masses and fragmentation spectra. The significant differential metabolites (SDMs) were identified with

VIP $\geq$ 1.0, Fold Change $\geq$ 1.2 or Fold Change $\leq$ 0.833, p value < 0.05. SDMs were then annotated and

classified by KEGG Database (https://www.genome.jp/kegg/pathway.html), Human Metabolome Database

(HMDB, https://hmdb.ca/metabolites), and Lipidmaps Database (https://www.lipidmaps.org/).

Antibacterial activity *in vivo*

Bacterial preparation: Overnight culture of S30 (*mcr-1*[+]) was diluted 1:100 in fresh LB medium and grown

to an OD_{600} of 0.7. Cells were harvested and washed twice with PBS, then adjusting the concentration of

bacterial suspensions to 1.31×10^6 CFU/mL for further use.

Animals and treatments: A total of 36 SPF Kunming mice (Six to eight-week-old, 18-22 g, half male and

half female) were purchased from the Huaxing Experimental Animal Center of Zhengzhou (Zhengzhou, China)

and divided into six groups (n = 6 per group): (1) PBS control group; (2) COL (10 mg/kg) group; (3) AS (15

mg/kg) group; (4) AS (15 mg/kg) + COL (10 mg/kg) group; (5) EDTA (50 mg/kg) + COL (10 mg/kg) group;

(6) AS (15 mg/kg) + EDTA (50 mg/kg)+ COL (10 mg/kg) group. Each mice was intraperitoneally injected

with 100 µL bacterial solution (1.31×10^5 CFU). Treatment was initiated at 2 h post infection and continued

for 3 days. Treatment was administered once per day by intraperitoneal injection according to the therapeutic

dose mentioned above. Mices were all euthanized and spleen, liver of aseptic were collected, weighed,

homogenized with PBS. Then the tissue homogenates were serially diluted with PBS in an appropriate amount

and 100 µL of each dilution was withdrawn and uniformly spread on SS agar plates. Bacterial counts were

computed and presented as the mean ± SD $\log_{10}$ CFU/mL, after incubated at 37℃ for 16 to 18 h. Mice were

maintained in a barrier facility and guaranteed strict compliance with the regulations for the Administration of

Affairs Concerning Experimental Animals approved by the State Council of People's Republic of China (11–

14–1988).The mouse experiments were approved by the Henan Science and Technology Department (protocol

number SCXK 2019-0002).

Data available

Transcriptome data have been submitted to the Sequence Read Archive database (SRA,

https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra) under the BioProject accession number PRJNA1036120 (S16 strain) and

PRJNA1036408 (S30 strain). Metabolome data have been submitted to the MetaboLights database

(https://www.ebi.ac.uk/metabolights) under accession number MTBLS8875. These accession numbers have

been released.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was conducted using Graphpad prism 9 and SPSS software. All data were derived from n

≥ 3 biological replicates and presented as mean ± SD. Without specific indication, differences between the

independent groups (* $p < 0.001$) were assessed with student's *t*-test or one-way ANOVA.

Supplement materials

Figure supplement 1. Intracellular accumulation of ROS in S16 and S30 strains after 6 h treatment.

Figure supplement 2. The number of DEGs are identified in S16 and S30 strains among different

comparison groups.

Figure supplement 3. KEGG pathway analysis of SDEGs in S16 (a, b) and S30 (c, d) strains within the

AC .vs. C, and EC .vs. C groups.

Figure supplement 4. (a) The SDEGs detected in *Salmonella* infection and ribosome pathways; (b)

Expression level of *mcr-1*; (c, d) efflux pump activity in S16 or S30 strain; (e) Putative pattern of interaction

between AS and MCR-1 protein.

Figure supplement 5. AS, EDTA, and COL inhibited the swimming motility of S16 (a) and S30 (b)

strains.

Table supplement 1. The antibacterial activities of COL, AS and EDTA against the tested strains after

single and double combinations

Table supplement 2. MIC values of COL against S16 and S30 strains after addition of exogenous

cations

Table supplement 3. MIC values of COL against S16 and S30 strains after addition of exogenous LPS

Table supplement 4. MIC values of COL against S16 strain after the overexpression of different genes

Table supplement 5. MIC values of COL against S30 strain after the incubation of polypeptides

Table supplement 6. Sequences of primers used in this study

Table supplement 7. The antibacterial activities of COL, AS and EDTA against the tested strains after

single and double combinations

Table supplement 8. The antibacterial activities of COL against the tested strains after single and triple

combinations

Table supplement 9. The MICs of different antimicrobial drugs against the S16 and S30

Supplement materials and methods

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515 Ethical statement: This study was carried out in accordance with the guidelines of Henan Agricultural

516 University Animal Ethics Committee.

Author contributions

519 YZ and GH conceived the study. PL, XH, and CF performed experiments, results analysis and wrote the

520 original draft. XC and QH analyzed the results and wrote the original draft. DH and XM analyzed the results.

521 YZ, PL, and GH approved the final version of the manuscript.

Disclosure and competing interests statement

524 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Data Availability

527 Data have been made available freely online.

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691 **Tables**

692 **Table 1. The antibacterial activities of COL against the tested strains after single and triple**

693 **combinations**

Strains	*mcr-1*	COL alone	MICs (mg/L)								Fold change
			COL + 1/4 AS +EDTA				COL + 1/8 AS +EDTA				
			1/4 EDTA	1/8 EDTA	1/16 EDTA	1/32 EDTA	1/4 EDTA	1/8 EDTA	1/16 EDTA	1/23 EDTA	
JS	—	0.25	0.015	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.03	0.25	0.25	0.25	**0-17**
S34	—	0.125	0.008	0.015	0.015	0.015	0.02	0.0625	0.125	0.125	**0-16**
S16	—	4	0.015	0.03	0.0625	0.0625	0.0625	0.125	0.125	0.5	**8-267**
S20	—	2	0.0625	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.25	0.5	0.5	0.5	**4-32**
S13	+	2	0.015	0.125	0.25	0.25	0.0625	0.25	0.5	0.5	**4-133**
S30	+	4	0.015	0.0625	0.0625	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.25	0.5	**8-266.6**
E16	+	2	0.00003	0.002	0.25	0.5	0.004	0.015	0.25	1	**2-66667**
M15	—	＞64	32	32	＞64	＞64	32	32	＞64	＞64	**0-2**
P01	—	＞64	＞64	＞64	＞64	＞64	＞64	＞64	＞64	＞64	**0**

694 Note: COL: colistin; AS: artesunate

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Time-kill curves of *Salmonella* strains JS, S16, and S30 with COL alone and in combinations.

a-f   Samples were treated with different concentration of COL (0.1 or 2 mg/L), alone or in drug combinations,

for 12 h. When used in combination, 1/8 MIC of AS or EDTA was added to a final concentration of

156.3 or 15.6 mg/L, respectively. Counts of CFU/mL were performed on all cultures at each time point,

and data are mean $\pm$ SD from representative of three independent experiments. CON indicates the

negative control group.

Figure 2. AS, EDTA, and COL affected membrane integrity, PMF, ROS, and H_2O_2 levels in S16 and S30

strains..

Different concentration of COL (0.1 or 2 mg/L) were used alone or in combination with AS and EDTA. When

used in combination, 1/8 MIC of AS or EDTA was added to a final concentration of 156.3 or 15.6 mg/L,

respectively.

a-d   AS, EDTA, and COL affected membrane integrity as measured by fluorescence probes NPN and PI.

Error bars indicated standard deviations for 3 replicas (* $p < 0.001$, ns not significant). CON indicates

the negative control group, and SOV indicates the solvent-exposed group.

e-h   Disruption of PMF is shown by measuring the dissipation of electric potential ($\Delta\psi$) (a, b) and osmotic

component (ΔpH) (c, d). Error bars indicate standard deviations for 3 replicas (* $p < 0.001$, ns not

significant). CON indicates the negative control group, and SOV indicates the solvent-exposed group.

i-l   Intracellular accumulation of ROS (i, j) and H_2O_2 (k, l) in S16 and S30 strains after 1 h treatment. Data

were shown in the mean of triplicates $\pm$ SD (* $p < 0.001$, ns not significant). CON indicates the

723 negative control group, SOV indicates the solvent-exposed group, and POS indicates the positive

724 control group that treated with Rosup from the Total ROS Detection Kit.

726 **Figure 3. Morphological changes of S16 (*mcr-1*⁻) strain.**

727 The images were obtained after the treatment with COL (2 mg/L) alone or in combination with 1/8 MIC of AS

728 (156.3 mg/L) or EDTA (15.6 mg/L). CON indicates the negative control group, and SOV indicates the

729 solvent-exposed group. Red arrows indicate the cell damages characterized by folds, crevices, or depressions.

731 **Figure 4. KEGG pathway analysis of SDEGs in S16 (a, b, c) and S30 (d, e, f) strains within the AEC .vs.**

732 **C, AEC .vs. AC, and AEC .vs. EC groups.**

733 Samples were harvested after the trestment of COL (2 mg/L) alone or in combination with 1/8 MIC of

734 AS (156.3 mg/L) or EDTA (15.6 mg/L) for 6 h. Pathway name and number of down-regulated (blue),

735 up-regulated (red) genes in each pathway are indicated in parentheses on the left (down/up).

736 Highlighted with red circles are the pathways that SDEGs mainly enriched and appeared

737 simultaneously in different comparison groups.

739 **Figure 5. The SDEGs detected in two component system (a, b), flagellar assembly (c, d) and ABC**

740 **transporters (e, f) pathways among different comparison groups, within S16 and S30 strains.**

741 Samples were harvested after the treatment of COL (2 mg/L) alone or in combination with 1/8 MIC of

742 AS (156.3 mg/L) or EDTA (15.6 mg/L) for 6 h. Labels in each square indicate the $\log_2$ (fold change) of

743 corresponding genes. Squares without label and gray background indicate the data are not credible (*p* >

0.05, |log₂Fold Change| < 1.0). Background colors indicate the expression levels of the respective genes,

red = up-regulated, blue = down-regulated. $\log_2$FC: $\log_2$Fold Change.

Figure 6. The SDMs detected in archidonic acid metabolism, degradation of aromatic compounds ,

taurine and hypotaurine metabolism pathways among different comparison groups, within S16 (a) and

S30 (b) strains.

Samples were harvested after the treatment of COL (2 mg/L) alone or in combination with 1/8 MIC of

AS (156.3 mg/L) or EDTA (15.6 mg/L) for 6 h. Labels in each square indicate the fold changes of

corresponding metabolites. Squares without label and gray background indicate the data are not

credible (VIP < 1.0, 0.833 > Fold Change < 1.2 or Fold Change $\leq$ 0.833, $p \geq$ 0.05). Background

colors indicate the fold changes of the respective metabolites, red = increased, blue = decreased.

Figure 7. AS and EDTA potentiate colistin activity against *Salmonella* S30 (*mcr-1⁺*) *in vivo*.

Kunming mice (n=6 per group) were intraperitoneally given a non-lethal dose of *Salmonella* S30 (1.31

$\times$ 10^5 CFU), then treated with PBS, COL (10 mg/kg), AS (15 mg/kg), AS (15 mg/kg) + COL (10

mg/kg), EDTA (50 mg/kg) + COL (10 mg/kg), and AS (15 mg/kg) + EDTA (50 mg/kg)+ COL (10

mg/kg) by intraperitoneal injection. Bacterial loads were determined in spleen and liver and bacterial

counts were computed and presented as the mean $\pm$ SD $\log_{10}$ CFU/mL. The p values were determined

by one-way ANOVA (* $p < 0.001$, ns not significant).

Figure 8. Scheme summarizing the proposed mechanisms that AS and EDTA enhancing the

antibacterial effect of COL against *Salmonella*.

① COL and EDTA cause the membrane damages by targeting LPS and chelating cations, which punch

holes in both the outer membrane (OM) and inner membrane (IM). ② AEC combination collapses the

$\Delta\psi$ component of Proton Motive Force (PMF) in *Salmonella*. ③ The down-regulated lipid compounds

prostaglandins (PGs) lead to perturbtion of membrane phospholipids in cell membranes. ④

Accumulation of toxic compounds (eg. styrene, ROS *et al*) could accelerate the destruction of cell

membrane. ⑤ The down-regulation of chemotaxis, flagellar assembly, *Salmonella* infection related

genes indicate impaired virulence of *Salmonella*. ⑥ The down-regulation of genes in ABC transporters

indicate impaired stress tolerance of *Salmonella*. ⑦ AEC treatment results in the down-rugulation of

flagellar assembly related genes and defective of flagellum. ⑧ AS was capable of significantly

enhancing the antibacterial activities of antibiotics against *E. coli,* via inhibition of the efflux pumps. ⑨

AS could be developed as the a MCR-1 inhibitor, which may work synergistically with the EDTA

chelation to inhibit MCR-1 and contribute to reverse the COL resistance of *mcr-1*-harboring *Salmonella*

strains. FC: Fold Change.

S16 (*mcr-1⁻*)

a AEC.vs.C

b AEC.vs.AC

c AEC.vs.EC

S30 (*mcr-1⁺*)

d AEC.vs.C

e AEC.vs.AC

f AEC.vs.EC

Two-component system

Flagellar assembly

ABC transporters

ROS

S30 (*mcr-1*[+])

a   AC.vs.C

Two-component system (8/43)
ABC transporters (8/43)
Flagellar assembly (7/16)
Fructose and mannose metabolism (3/14)
Pentose and glucuronate interconversions (2/15)
Porphyrin metabolism (0/14)
Glyoxylate and dicarboxylate metabolism (3/10)
Citrate cycle (TCA cycle) (12/1)
Oxidative phosphorylation (12/1)
Sulfur metabolism (1/12)
Propanoate metabolism (1/11)
Pyruvate metabolism (1/11)
Glycolysis / Gluconeogenesis (5/6)
Bacterial secretion system (1/9)
Nitrogen metabolism (1/9)
Pentose phosphate pathway (1/9)
Purine metabolism (3/7)
Ascorbate and aldarate metabolism (0/8)
Starch and sucrose metabolism (2/6)
Glycerophospholipid metabolism (0/7)

b   EC.vs.C

ABC transporters (5/48)
Two-component system (2/41)
Flagellar assembly (1/15)
Pentose and glucuronate interconversions (1/14)
Porphyrin metabolism (0/15)
Sulfur metabolism (0/15)
Pyruvate metabolism (1/13)
Fructose and mannose metabolism (0/12)
Propanoate metabolism (0/11)
Glyoxylate and dicarboxylate metabolism (0/9)
Nitrogen metabolism (0/9)
Pentose phosphate pathway (0/9)
Pyrimidine metabolism (3/6)
Ascorbate and aldarate metabolism (0/8)
Bacterial secretion system (0/8)
Glycerophospholipid metabolism (0/8)
Purine metabolism (1/7)
Thiamine metabolism (0/7)
Starch and sucrose metabolism (0/7)
Glycolysis / Gluconeogenesis (1/6)

S16 (*mcr-1*[-])

c   AC.vs.C

Two-component system (13/16)
ABC transporters (11/7)
Flagellar assembly (6/5)
Oxidative phosphorylation (9/0)
Citrate cycle (TCA cycle) (8/0)
Salmonella infection (6/1)
Ascorbate and aldarate metabolism (0/6)
Propanoate metabolism (1/5)
Fructose and mannose metabolism (0/6)
Pentose and glucuronate interconversions (1/5)
Bacterial secretion system (2/3)
Nitrogen metabolism (2/3)
Porphyrin metabolism (0/5)
Glyoxylate and dicarboxylate metabolism (0/4)

d   EC.vs.C

ABC transporters (3/3)
Pentose and glucuronate interconversions (2/2)
Two-component system (3/1)
Fructose and mannose metabolism (3/0)
Amino sugar and nucleotide sugar metabolism (3/0)
Salmonella infection (0/3)
Bacterial secretion system (1/1)
Flagellar assembly (1/1)
Ribosome (0/2)
Phosphotransferase system (PTS) (0/1)
Fatty acid biosynthesis (0/1)
Tyrosine metabolism (1/0)
Galactose metabolism (0/1)
Glycine, serine and threonine metabolism (1/0)
Propanoate metabolism (1/0)

a S16 (*mcr-1⁻*)

b S30 (*mcr-1⁺*)