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Quantifying the contribution of four resistance mechanisms to ciprofloxacin MIC in Escherichia coli: a systematic review

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(Article begins on next page)

- 1 Quantifying the contribution of four resistance mechanisms to
- 2 ciprofloxacin minimum inhibitory concentration in Escherichia coli: a
- **3 systematic review**
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Synopsis

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Introduction Ciprofloxacin resistance in Escherichia coli is widespread and adds to the burden of E. coli infections. Reviews assessing the genetic basis of ciprofloxacin resistance have mostly been qualitative. However, to allow for the prediction of a resistance phenotype of clinical relevance based on genotypic characteristics, it is essential to quantify the contribution of prevalent genotypic determinants to resistance. We carried out a systematic review to assess the relative contribution of currently known genomic resistance determinants to the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of ciprofloxacin in E. coli. Methods PubMed and Web of Science were searched for English language studies that assessed both ciprofloxacin MIC and the presence or introduction of genetic determinants of ciprofloxacin resistance in E. coli. We included experimental and observational studies without time restrictions. Medians and ranges of MIC fold changes were calculated for each resistance determinant and for combinations of determinants. Results We included 66 studies, describing 604 E. coli isolates that carried at least one genetic resistance determinant. Genes coding for targets of ciprofloxacin (qyrA and parC) are strongest contributors to ciprofloxacin resistance, with median MIC fold increases ranging from 24 (range 4-133) for single Ser83Leu (gyrA) mutants to 1533 (range 256-8533) for triple Ser83Leu, Asp87Asn/Gly (gyrA) and Ser80lle/Arg (parC) mutants. Other resistance mechanisms, including efflux, physical blocking or enzymatic modification, conferred smaller increases in ciprofloxacin MIC (median MIC fold increases typically around 15, range 1-125). However, the (combined) presence of these other resistance mechanisms further increases resistance with median MIC fold increases of up to 4000, and even in the absence of gyrA and parC mutations up to 250.

Conclusion

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This report provides a comprehensive and quantitative overview of the contribution of different genomic determinants to ciprofloxacin resistance in E. coli. Additionally, the data demonstrate the complexity of resistance phenotype prediction from genomic data and could serve as a reference point for studies aiming to address ciprofloxacin resistance prediction using genomics, in *E. coli*. Introduction Escherichia coli is a Gram-negative bacterium able to adopt a commensal or pathogenic lifestyle in humans and animals. Adding to the danger of pathogenic E. coli is the rise of antimicrobial resistance. Escherichia coli has acquired resistance to some of our most important antimicrobials, including aminopenicillins, cephalosporins, aminoglycosides, carbapenems and fluoroquinolones.2 Ciprofloxacin is an antimicrobial of the fluoroguinolone class, commonly prescribed for a wide variety of infections including infections caused by E. coli.³ As is the case for other fluoroguinolones, the substrate of ciprofloxacin is the complex formed by the DNA of the bacterium and either the DNA gyrase enzyme or the topoisomerase IV enzyme.⁴⁻⁶ DNA gyrase creates single-stranded breaks in the DNA to negatively supercoil the DNA during replication or transcription. Till ciprofloxacin binds DNA gyrase in complex with DNA, the single stranded DNA breaks cannot be religated and thus accumulate, leading to double stranded DNA breaks. A similar mechanism is hypothesized for topoisomerase IV.9 The mechanisms of ciprofloxacin resistance in E. coli have been investigated intensively in the

past 30 years. Mutations in genes coding for DNA gyrase and topoisomerase IV contribute to

ciprofloxacin resistance in *E. coli.* 10,11 In addition, efflux pumps may decrease drug accumulation

whilst peptides and enzymes may block drug targets or may modify the drug, respectively (Figure 1). Numerous reviews have covered the topic of ciprofloxacin resistance in *E. coli*, but these reviews have been overwhelmingly qualitative in nature. 12–19

With the rapidly increasing availability of next generation sequencing technologies, research aimed at the prediction of a resistance phenotype from genomic data is increasing. However, these efforts typically correlate genotypic data to a categorical measure of resistance, while a quantitative resistance phenotype prediction is of clinical relevance. Therefore, we carried out a systematic review, summarizing observational and experimental studies that assessed genetic ciprofloxacin resistance determinants and the ciprofloxacin minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) conferred by these determinants in *E. coli*, to elucidate how the presence of genomic resistance determinants, either alone or in combination, affects ciprofloxacin MIC in *E. coli*. In addition, we performed an *E. coli* protein network analysis to detect potential additional determinants of ciprofloxacin resistance on the basis of the findings of the systematic review.

Methods

Systematic search

The PRISMA 2009 checklist was used as a guide for this systematic review.²⁰ PubMed and Web of Science were searched using a defined set of keywords, selecting original research articles in English language reporting on susceptibility test results of *Escherichia coli* isolates measured as Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) due to genetic modifications identified in clinical, carriage or environmental isolates (observational) or introduced in *E. coli* strains *in vitro* (experimental) (Supplementary methods). No time limits were applied. In addition to the defined

search strategy, forward and backward citation searches of reviews and included articles was carried out. The final search was conducted on July 5th, 2018.

Inclusion and exclusion criteria for experimental and observational studies

Articles were not considered eligible for inclusion if they failed to mention any keyword (listed in the supplementary methods) describing ciprofloxacin resistance determinants in title or abstract. Eligible articles were screened by title, abstract and/or full text for inclusion based on the following inclusion and exclusion criteria (Figure 2). Studies could be included as experimental or as observational studies. For inclusion as an experimental study, the study needed to report a ciprofloxacin MIC before and after the introduction of a genetic modification in a single Escherichia coli strain. Studies were eligible to be included as observational studies if the ciprofloxacin MIC of at least one Escherichia coli isolate was reported, together with the observed genetic determinants of ciprofloxacin resistance. In vitro evolution studies where E. coli were exposed to ciprofloxacin resulting in decreased susceptibility to ciprofloxacin, were considered observational studies, since mutations are not actively introduced in these studies. Observational studies were excluded if they failed to test for the presence of all of the following resistance determinants: mutations in Ser83 and Asp87 of gyrA, mutations in Ser80 and Glu84 of parC, mutations in acrR and marR, presence of ogxAB, gepA, gnrA, gnrB, gnrS and aac(6')lbcr. If studies failed to indicate unambiguously which resistance determinants were tested, the study was excluded.

Definitions

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For this systematic review, the conventional definition of MIC was used, meaning the lowest concentration of ciprofloxacin that inhibits the visible growth of a bacterial culture during overnight incubation.²¹ Clinical breakpoints (≤0.25 mg/L susceptible; 0.5 mg/L intermediately

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resistant, ≥1 mg/L resistant) and epidemiological cutoffs (0.064 mg/L) were used as defined by EUCAST.^{22,23} A genomic resistance determinant was defined as a mutation in a gene or the presence of a plasmid-mediated gene that decreases ciprofloxacin susceptibility. Since currently four mechanisms of ciprofloxacin resistance in E. coli are known, an isolate can possess multiple resistance determinants encoding for multiple resistance mechanisms. In addition, a single resistance mechanism can be encoded by multiple resistance determinants. Genetic modifications were defined as an experimentally acquired mutation, insertion or deletion of a nucleotide or a sequence of nucleotides in the chromosome. The introduction of plasmidmediated genes was also considered a genetic modification. Dominance tests as described by Heisig et al. were considered experimental evidence.²⁴ In short, a dominance test relies on increasing the susceptibility of a bacterium to an antimicrobial, by introducing a plasmid containing the wild type gene that codes for the antimicrobial's target. In the studies included in this report, the MICs of bacteria with mutations in gyrA or parC were lowered by introducing a plasmid containing wild type gyrA or wild type parC. Data extraction and analysis The management of the literature search was performed using Pubreminer (http://hgserver2.amc.nl/cgi-bin/miner/miner2.cgi). All data on genetic modifications were extracted from the articles or supplementary material, together with MIC data. For experimental data, the MICs of the isolates before and after a targeted genetic modification were extracted to calculate a fold change of ciprofloxacin MIC for each of the *E. coli* isolates.

We calculated how frequently resistance determinants were tested in the experimental data. This frequency is expressed as the number of isolates in which the genetic modification was introduced, divided by the total number of isolates included from experimental studies. The frequency can be used to estimate the strength of evidence per resistance determinant (Table S1). Furthermore, the sample sources, country of origin and isolation date of included *E. coli* isolates were extracted from the observational studies.

The MIC fold change data plot and the correlation matrix were generated using the ggplot2 package RStudio version 1.1.383, running R version 3.4.2. Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated using the stats package and prepared for plotting using the reshape2 package.

Network construction

To investigate interactions between resistance determinants and to search for potential resistance determinants, a protein-protein interaction network was constructed. The *Escherichia coli* K-12 MG1655 interactome was extracted from the STRING-v10 database. String-v10 aims to be more complete in terms of coverage of proteins for each organism in comparison to the other meta-interactomes available. The functional association is the basic interaction unit of String in order to link proteins with a functional relation that are likely to contribute to a common biological purpose. Each interaction is derived from multiple sources, and we identify three groups of interactions (Table S3): PI interactions (where at least one physical protein interaction has been tested, imported from primary databases), FP interactions (determined by at least one functional prediction of an algorithm employed by String, genomic information, pathway knowledge, orthology relations) and TM interactions (supported only by automated text-mining of MedLine abstracts and full-text articles). Based on the sources, for each interaction in String a score is calculated, ranging from 0 to 1. In our analysis, only interactions with a score higher than 0.7 were retained (defined as high quality interactions by String), resulting in 3,890 nodes and 32,854 edges (with only 0.06% of the links supported only by TM interactions). Genes

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resulted by the systematic search were mapped to the EcoGene-3.0 database to obtain E. coli K-12 MG1655 identifiers (bnumber)²⁸, that were subsequently mapped to the MG1655 interactome. Results Systematic search The systematic search yielded 5055 PubMed entries and 5873 Web of Science entries. After removal of duplicates, 1718 unique articles were screened on content by title, abstract and, if necessary, full text. This approach identified 50 articles that were included as experimental studies. Additionally, 10 experimental studies were identified through backward/forward searches in citations of included articles and known reviews. Three articles fulfilled inclusion criteria for observational studies, of which two articles were also included as experimental studies because they provided experimental data as well (figure 2). The number of E. coli isolates which were confirmed to harbour at least one resistance determinant and for which MICs were reported, amounted to a total of 366 isolates from experimental studies (Table S1) and 238 isolates from observational studies (Table S2). A total

of 43 different genomic determinants were described in the collected experimental data, of which

21 were shown to have an effect on ciprofloxacin MIC (Table 1).

Experimental studies focused primarily on mutations in Ser83 (28% of included isolates) and Asp87 (18%) of *gyrA*, S80 (15%) of *parC* and mutations in *marR* (20%). Of all plasmid-mediated resistance genes, *qnrA* (17%), *qnrS* (12%) and *aac(6')Ib-cr* (13%) were described most often. The other resistance determinants were tested in less than 10% of the experimentally modified isolates.

Target alteration mutations in gyrA, gyrB, parC and parE

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Mutations in *gyrA* were the first ciprofloxacin resistance determinants to be discovered (Hooper 1987). Mutations in parC, gyrB and parE were later also proven or implied to decrease ciprofloxacin susceptibility. 11,29,44 gyrA and parC mutations that reduce ciprofloxacin susceptibility cluster in regions termed the quinolone resistance-determining regions (QRDRs). Generally, the QRDR of gyrA ranges from amino acid Ala67 to Gln106, 45 and the QRDR of parC from Ala64 to Gln103.¹¹ gyrA and parC mutations accumulate stepwise in E. coli when exposed to ciprofloxacin, increasing ciprofloxacin MIC concurrently. 11,46–48 The most common initial mutation is Ser83Leu in *gyrA*. 46-48 In the collected experimental data, this mutation confers a median fold increase in MIC of 24 (range: 4-133x fold increase). 11,49-55 This mutation is most often followed by Ser80lle in parC^{11,46,48} and finally by Asp87Asn or Asp87Gly in gyrA.⁴⁶⁻⁴⁸ As mutations in gyrA and parC accumulate, ciprofloxacin MIC increases steeply. The ciprofloxacin MIC fold increase for a mutant of Ser83Leu (qvrA) and Ser80lle (parC) is 62.5.51 A similar double mutant of Ser83Leu (gyrA) and Ser80Arg (parC) showed a ciprofloxacin MIC fold increase of 125.53 For a triple mutant of Ser83Leu, Asp87Asn (gyrA) and Ser80lle (parC) the median ciprofloxacin MIC fold increase is 2000. 11,51,54 A quadruple mutant of Ser83Leu, Asp87Asn (gyrA) and Ser80lle, Glu84Lys (parC) has been tested, but this mutant did not show a higher ciprofloxacin MIC than triple mutants within the same study. 11 In addition, Glv81Asp and Asp82Glv mutations in qvrA

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have been tested. These mutations caused low to no decrease in ciprofloxacin susceptibility (MIC fold changes: 2.6x and 1x, respectively, Table 2). 49,56 Only one gyrB mutation (Asp426Asn) was shown to slightly increase ciprofloxacin resistance (Table 2).²⁹ We did not find studies that showed a decreased ciprofloxacin susceptibility due to mutations in parE. However, a Leu445His mutation in parE of E. coli caused a 2x fold increase in the MIC of norfloxacin, another fluoroguinolone.44 Efflux pump genes (acrAB, toIC) and their transcriptional regulators (marR, acrR and soxS) As with many other antimicrobials, bacterial efflux pumps also play a role in resistance against ciprofloxacin. Deletion of acrAB or tolC confers a clear increase in the ciprofloxacin susceptibility of E. coli (4-8 fold decrease in MIC). 30,31,57 Deletions of 14 other genes or operons coding for efflux pumps in *E. coli* did not affect the ciprofloxacin MIC.³¹ The deletion of transcriptional repressors of expression of efflux pumps like marR and acrR has been shown to affect ciprofloxacin MIC. The only study in our collected experimental data to investigate deletion of acrR showed that the MIC tripled after the repressor was deleted. 51 Nine studies investigated the effects of marR deletion or mutation, which reported a median fold increase in ciprofloxacin MIC of 4 (range 1.5-218x fold increase). 30,51,52,54,58-60 A recent study by Pietsch et al. detected mutations in rpoB in an in vitro evolution experiment. 33 These mutations arose after accumulation of other mutations, and were shown to increase the ciprofloxacin MIC of a wild type E. coli by 1.5-3 fold change (Table 2). The mutations in rpoB were shown to increase ciprofloxacin MIC by upregulating the expression of *mdtK* (also known as *ydhE*). Two experimental studies reported mutations in efflux pump operons, influencing ciprofloxacin MIC. The first mutation was Ala12Ser in soxS, leading to higher expression of acrB, in turn leading to a ciprofloxacin MIC fold increase of 4.32 The second mutation was a Gly288Asp

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mutation in acrB itself, conferring a 16.7 fold increase in ciprofloxacin MIC (Table 2).61 This acrB mutation however increased susceptibility to other antimicrobials. Plasmid-encoded efflux pump genes oqxAB and qepA In addition to chromosomally-encoded efflux pumps, the presence of plasmid-encoded efflux pump genes ogxAB and gepA has been shown to increase ciprofloxacin MIC in E. coli. 34,35 ogxAB confers a median fold increase in MIC of 7.5 (range 2-16x fold increase)^{35,62-64}, while qepA confers a median fold increase of 4.5 (range 2-31x fold increase, Table 2). 34,52,65-68 *gnr* genes gnrA was the first plasmid-mediated quinolone resistance (PMQR) determinant to be discovered.³⁶ Qnr proteins are pentapeptide repeat proteins that decrease binding of fluoroguinolones to DNA gyrase by binding the DNA:DNA gyrase complex. 69 Since 2002, many more *qnr* alleles have been discovered. Currently seven families of *qnr* genes are recognized: anrA, anrB, anrC, anrD, anrE, anrS and anrVC.70 In the collected experimental data, all anr families have been tested for their influence on ciprofloxacin MIC of E. coli, except for gnrVC. qnr genes confer ciprofloxacin MIC fold increases between 4 and 125. The median ciprofloxacin MIC fold increase differed per *qnr* allele (Table 2). aac(6')lb-cr and crpP A plasmid mediated mutant aac(6') lb gene that decreased fluoroguinolone susceptibility in E. coli was discovered in 2006.42 Until then, aac(6')lb genes were only known to decrease E. coli susceptibility to aminoglycosides. A double mutation in the acetyltransferase-encoding gene enabled the resulting protein to acetylate both aminoglycosides and some fluoroguinolones, including ciprofloxacin. This novel variant, aac(6')lb-cr, was shown to confer a median fold increase in ciprofloxacin MIC of 6.9 (range: 1-62.5x fold increase, Table 2). 52,71-76

The most recently discovered ciprofloxacin resistance determinant in *E. coli* is *crpP*, a plasmid-mediated gene coding for a protein with the putative ability to phosphorylate certain fluoroquinolones such as ciprofloxacin. ⁴³ *crpP* was first detected in a clinical isolate of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, but was shown to confer a 7.5 fold-change increase in ciprofloxacin MIC when conjugated to *E. coli* J53.

Effect of multiple modifications on MIC

The fold change in MIC of each included experimental isolate was plotted, stratified for the resistance mechanism present (Figure 3). Target alteration resulted in the largest range of MIC fold changes which were on average higher than the fold changes observed as a result of the three other mechanisms. Whilst the presence of determinants representing different ciprofloxacin resistance mechanisms may result in a moderate fold change in MIC, the accumulation of multiple resistance determinants encoding multiple mechanisms of resistance is likely to increase the ciprofloxacin MIC significantly.

Comparison of experimental and observational data

We compared the findings from the experimental data with susceptibility test results and associated presence of mutations reported for isolates in observational studies. Because studies were excluded if isolates were not tested for the presence of all known resistance encoding determinants, only studies could be included that were published after *oqxAB* was linked to increased ciprofloxacin MIC in 2007.³⁵ The description of *crpP* was only recently published and was therefore not used as an inclusion criterion. Only three observational studies reported on the presence of all currently known resistance determinants.^{33,97,98} Since mutations in both *acrR* and *marR* genes were shown to result in no to low fold changes in ciprofloxacin MIC, we added five observational studies that fulfilled all inclusion and exclusion criteria except testing for the presence of mutations in *acrR* and *marR* genes, in a secondary analysis. Thus, eight

observational studies published between 2012 and 2018 were included, contributing data on a total of 238 strains (Table S2). The studies reported data on 1 to 92 isolates, with a median of 13.5 isolates per study. Ciprofloxacin MICs of included isolates ranged from 0.015 to 1024 mg/L with a median MIC of 1 mg/L. We analysed MIC distributions for combinations of resistance determinants that were reported at least five times in the experimental and observational data. These combinations of resistance determinants included the mutation Ser83Leu in gyrA, presence of gnrS1 and presence of aac(6')lb-cr. Although for most combinations of resistance determinants small numbers of isolates were reported, results of experimental and observational data appear comparable with the exception for the reported MICs for *E. coli* strains solely harbouring *aac(6')lb-cr* (Table 3). We also examined if certain combinations of resistance mechanisms were more prevalent than others in the observational data. Calculating Pearson correlation coefficients between commonly observed resistance determinants showed that gyrA (Ser83, Asp87) and parC (Ser80) mutations were positively correlated with each other. Additionally, these three mutations were shown to inversely correlate with the presence of *qnrB* and *qnrS* genes in our observational data. This inverse correlation was not observed with other frequently reported plasmid-mediated resistance

Network visualization

determinants such as *aac(6')lb-cr* (Figure 4).

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In order to get a global picture of the mutation landscape associated with ciprofloxacin resistance, we mapped the selected chromosomal genes onto a Protein-Protein Interaction (PPI) network. The selected genes were evaluated in a wide range of *E. coli* strains, and we mapped them to the String-v10 database referring to the *E. coli* K-12 MG1655 model organism, since it

showed the highest number of matching edges and nodes among the strains available in String database. We noted that plasmid-associated genes like oqxAB and the qnr gene family were not described by interactomes in general, since interactomes mostly describe the core genome. Moreover, some genes (such as yohG) could not be mapped because they are not present in E. coli K-12 MG1655.

Of the 43 selected genes, 31 (72%) mapped to the PPI network, resulting in a fully connected sub-module. The network highlighted the close relationship between gene connectivity and ciprofloxacin resistance effects: the chosen visualization algorithm showed that genes with similar effects tightly grouped in the interactome (Figure 5). Particularly, the genes that had an increasing effect on ciprofloxacin resistance when mutated seemed to cluster, even if the genes belonged to different resistance mechanisms. As expected, close relationships between particular sets of genes were revealed. Transcriptional regulators such as marR, acrR and soxS were shown to interact with efflux pump genes such as acrA, acrB, acrD, acrF and tolC. Also, the physical interactions between gyrA, gyrB and parC were depicted in the network.

Discussion

This report provides a comprehensive and systematic analysis of 66 papers linking genotype of *E. coli* to a quantitative ciprofloxacin resistance phenotype, spanning the years 1989-2018 and amounting to a total of 604 isolates. Ciprofloxacin MIC in *E. coli* is largely affected by target mutations in specific residues in *gyrA* (Ser83 and Asp87) and *parC* (Ser80), conferring median MIC fold increases ranging from 24 for single Ser83Leu (*gyrA*) mutants to 1533 for triple Ser83Leu, Asp87Asn/Gly (*gyrA*) Ser80lle/Arg (*parC*) mutants. However, accumulation of multiple resistance determinants, including those representing other resistance mechanisms, can increase ciprofloxacin MIC even further, up to MIC fold increases of 4000.

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Beside the MIC fold changes that are conferred by resistance determinants, it is important to consider how these genetic resistance determinants are acquired. The SOS response is an important driver of mutation after DNA damage is induced by quinolones such as ciprofloxacin. 99 Two proteins that are central in the SOS response are LexA and RecA. In the absence of DNA damage, LexA dimers are bound to a SOS box (promoter region of SOS genes) and inhibit expression of SOS genes. If DNA damage is induced, for example through the presence of ciprofloxacin, RecA will bind ssDNA that is a result of the DNA damage. The activated RecA in turn mediates the self-cleavage of LexA, derepressing the SOS box, finally leading to expression of SOS genes and thus the SOS response. This SOS response induces mutations, among others, through DNA damage repair performed by error-prone DNA polymerases. 100 Currently, four ways are known in which the SOS response affects ciprofloxacin resistance in E. coli. First, the SOS response induces a higher mutation rate, making it more likely that ciprofloxacin resistance mutations will arise within a fixed population. 101 Additionally, if the SOS response is knocked out in E. coli, ciprofloxacin MIC decreases. Clinically resistant E. coli that had recA knocked out showed MIC fold decreases of 4-8.101 Furthermore, the SOS response has been shown to induce expression of some gnr gene families, for example gnrB and anrD. 102,103 Finally, the SOS response has been shown to promote horizontal transfer of resistance genes when E. coli is grown in the presence of ciprofloxacin. 104 After mutagenesis through mechanisms such as the SOS response, the fitness of the mutant indicates how likely the bacterium is to survive. In absence of ciprofloxacin, gyrA mutations and parC mutations have been shown to confer limited fitness costs compared to other resistance determinants. 48,51,59,67,75 Additionally, mutations in *gyrA* and *parC* show positive epistasis, as the MIC fold change of the triple Ser83Leu, Asp87Asn (gyrA) and Ser80lle (parC) mutant is higher (2000x fold increase) than would be expected based on the MIC fold changes conferred by the individual mutations (24x, 16x and 1x fold increases, respectively). ^{51,105} This epistatic effect thus

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raises ciprofloxacin MIC very efficiently. This, in combination with the low fitness costs in absence of ciprofloxacin might explain why ciprofloxacin resistance mutations in gyrA and parC are the most common ciprofloxacin resistance determinants observed in E. coli. Notably, other combinations of resistance determinants also show positive epistatic effects. although the observed effects are weaker. A similar positive epistatic effect was observed for chromosomal gyrA/parC mutations together with plasmid-mediated resistance determinants gepA⁶⁷ and aac(6')lb-cr.^{52,75} However, experimental studies of combinations of gyrA and parC mutations with *qnr* genes showed discordant results. One study reported a negative epistatic effect on ciprofloxacin MIC of target alteration mutations with all gnr genes tested (gnrA, gnrB, anrC. anrD. anrS)59, and another study observed a similar effect of target alteration mutations with qnrB, but the opposite effect for target alteration mutations with qnrS in terms of conferred MIC.52 The complex relation between *gyrA/parC* mutations and *gnr* genes is further illustrated by our findings from the observational data. We observed a clear negative correlation between presence of gyrA or parC mutations and presence of gnrB and gnrS genes. This finding is in line with an earlier study that reported an E. coli population fixating gyrA/parC mutations at a reduced rate when the E. coli population harboured a qnr gene as opposed to when the E. coli strain did not harbour a *gnr* gene. 81 However, no additional fitness costs are usually reported for E. coli harbouring both gyrA/parC mutations and gnr genes. 59 One possible explanation was suggested by the study of Garoff et al., who reported an enhanced fitness cost conferred by qnr genes when Lon protease was absent from an *E. coli* genome. 106 This finding shows that the fitness cost conferred by an antimicrobial resistance gene to an E. coli strain can be influenced by genes that do not directly play a role in antimicrobial resistance. By mapping the selected genes onto a known E. coli interactome, we found a clear association between their role in ciprofloxacin resistance and their position in the network, with a significant

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proximity of genes that produce a similar response in terms of resistance (i.e. increase or decrease). This global picture highlights the presence of common biological functions (mostly associated with the efflux pumps and their regulation), and it suggests that system biology approaches in the future will likely be helpful to identify new targets or specific pathways related to ciprofloxacin resistance or antimicrobial resistance in general. As an example, the position in the network of acrD and acrF genes, which were not identified as resistance-associated genes in the experiments reported so far, and their biological function as efflux pump protein complexes. suggest that their role in resistance should be more deeply investigated. Despite its comprehensiveness our study has certain limitations. First, gene expression data are not included in this review because our study aims at prediction of MIC on the basis of a DNA sequence. It has been shown that increased expression of efflux pumps such as acrAB or transcriptional regulators of efflux pumps such as marA is significantly correlated with increased fluoroguinolone MIC in *E. coli.*^{107,108} Secondly, complex combinations of resistance determinants such as combinations of gyrA/parC mutations with plasmid-mediated resistance determinants have been reported sparsely in the experimental data. Therefore, the comparison of experimental and observational data for these combinations of resistance determinants is impossible using this dataset. Finally, only currently known ciprofloxacin resistance determinants could be included in this report. The very recent discovery of crpP suggests that more resistance determinants or resistance mechanisms are still waiting to be discovered. 43 Additionally, complex mutation patterns influencing ciprofloxacin resistance through unknown pathways may exist, but current research methods do not usually detect these kinds of effects. One possible solution for the issues described above would be the use of advanced machine learning algorithms to predict ciprofloxacin resistance. These algorithms should be able to associate large quantities of sequence data with phenotypic metadata in an unbiased manner. One such attempt has been made for ciprofloxacin resistance already. 109 It was reported that

Ser83Phe, Ser83Thr (*gyrA*), Ser80Arg (*parC*) and presence of any *qnr* gene were the most important resistance determinants according to the algorithm used. However, this study used categorical (susceptible or resistant) and not quantitative phenotype data, and included various Enterobacteriaceae species and the results can thus not be directly compared with the data presented here for *E. coli* alone. This is exemplified by the fact that neither Ser83Phe nor Ser83Thr (*gyrA*) were reported in our observational data. For future studies, the data collected for this review could serve as a benchmark, as this review presents a comprehensive set of quantitative data on the contribution of various resistance determinants to ciprofloxacin MIC in *E. coli*.

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Transparency

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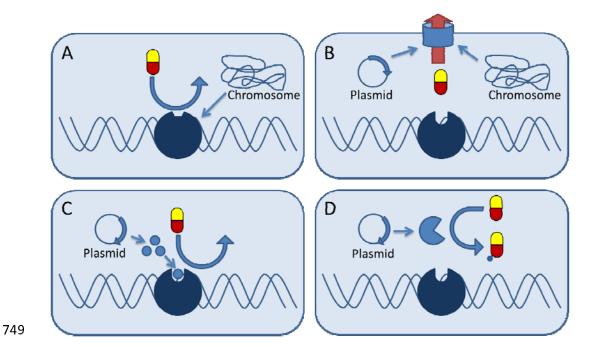


Figure 1. Schematic representation of four mechanisms of ciprofloxacin resistance in *E. coli*. A) Target alteration. B) Decreased ciprofloxacin accumulation. C) Physical blocking of ciprofloxacin target. D) Enzymatic modification of ciprofloxacin.

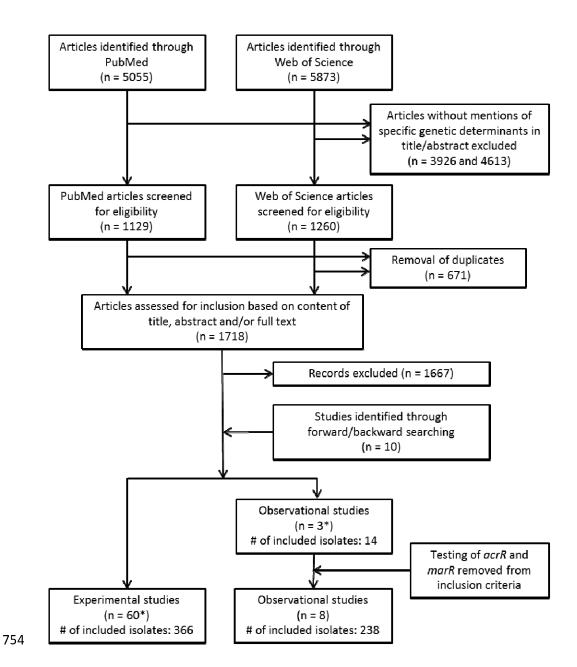


Figure 2. Flow chart adapted from the PRISMA guidelines (Moher 2009), showing the process of including articles starting from a systematic search of PubMed and Web of Science. *2 Studies contributed experimental and observational data, and were thus included for both types of articles.

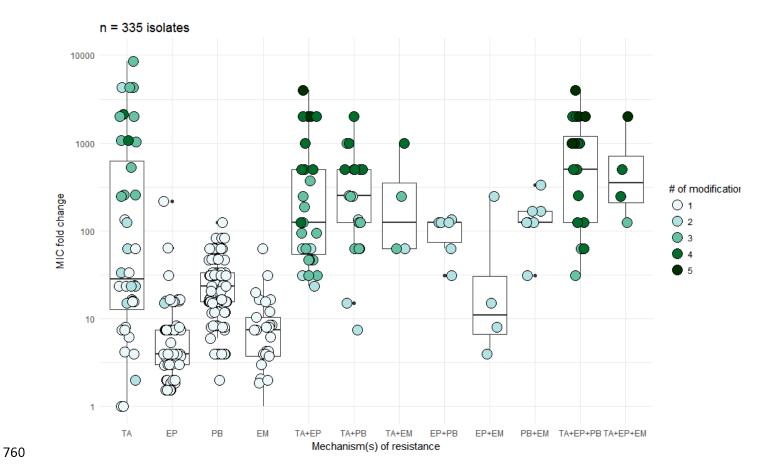


Figure 3. Median fold change (interquartile range) in ciprofloxacin MIC for each resistance mechanism or combination of resistance mechanisms experimentally tested in 366 isolates. Fold changes were calculated by dividing the MIC after modification by the MIC before modification for each isolate. Data points represent single *E. coli* isolates. Darker fill of data points indicates the presence of multiple resistance mutations or resistance genes in the isolate. Isolates that showed a decreased ciprofloxacin MIC after modification (such as deletion of *acrAB* or *toIC*) are not shown but are listed in table S1. ^{30,31,57} TA = target alteration (mutations in *gyrA*, *gyrB* or *parC*), EP = efflux pump (mutations in *acrB*, *marR*, *acrR*, *rpoB* or presence of *qepA* or *oqxAB*), PB = physical blocking (presence of *qnrA*, *qnrB*, *qnrC*, *qnrD*, *qnrE* or *qnrS*), EM = enzymatic modification (presence of *aac(6')Ib-cr* or *crpP*).

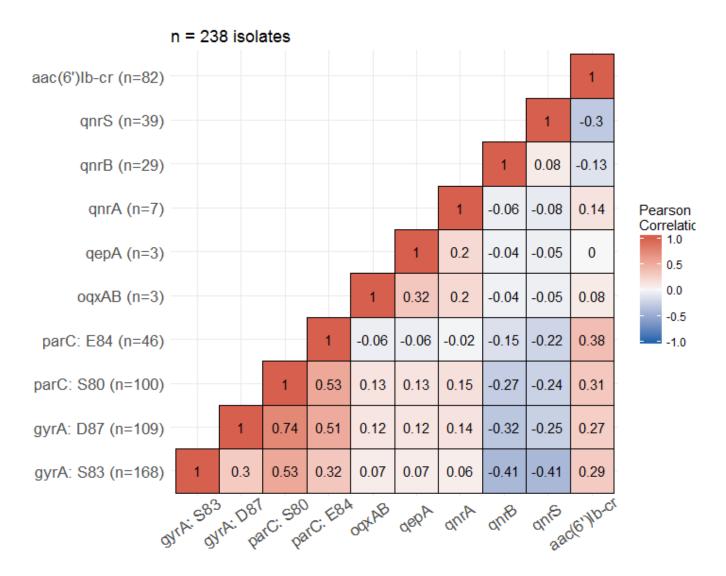


Figure 4. Matrix displaying Pearson correlation coefficients calculated between resistance determinants in a pairwise manner. All 238 strains used for this analysis were screened for all displayed resistance determinants. The reported frequencies of resistance determinants in our dataset are displayed on the y-axis. Full data is provided in table S2.

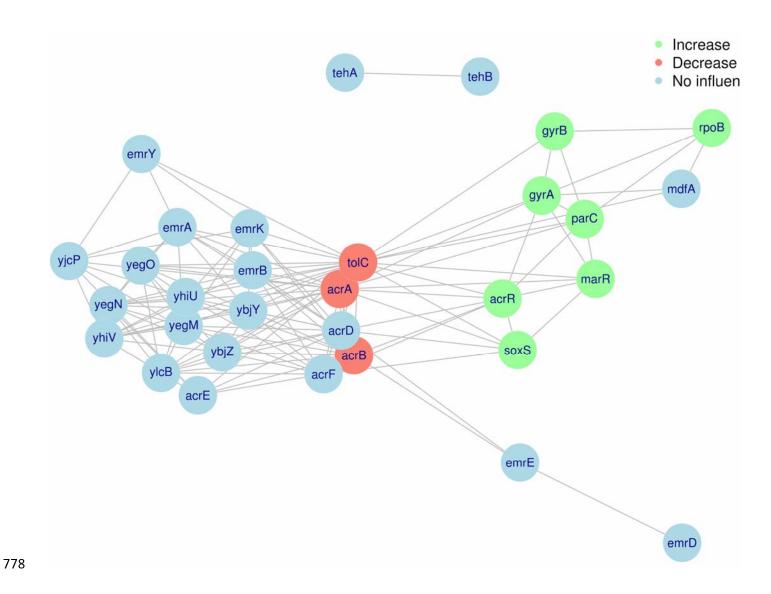


Figure 5. Network of *E. coli* ciprofloxacin resistance-associated chromosomal genes. 31 genes that were examined for their influence on ciprofloxacin and were present in the *E. coli* K-12 MG1655 genome were mapped to the String-v10 PPI database. Genes were coloured green if a mutation conferring increased ciprofloxacin resistance was observed; genes were coloured red when a mutation decreased ciprofloxacin resistance; genes were coloured blue when a mutation showed no effect on ciprofloxacin resistance. The network is displayed by R package iGraph employing the force-directed layout algorithm by Fruchterman and Reingold. The list of edges with corresponding data categories (PI, FP or TM) is available as supplementary table 3.

Table 1. Ciprofloxacin resistance mechanisms in *Escherichia coli* and genes involved in these mechanisms. Note that in this overview, only genes are displayed that were shown to have any effect on ciprofloxacin susceptibility when mutations are present (chromosomal genes) or if the resistance gene is present (plasmid-encoded genes).

Resistance mechanism	Chromosomal genes	Plasmid-encoded genes	
	involved in ciprofloxacin	involved in ciprofloxacin	
	resistance	resistance	
Target alteration	gyrA ¹² , gyrB ²⁹ , parC ¹¹	-	
Decreased ciprofloxacin	marR ³⁰ , acrRAB ³¹ , tolC ³¹ ,	qepA ³⁴ , oqxAB ³⁵	
accumulation	$soxS^{32}$, $rpoB^{33}$		
Physical blocking of	-	qnrA ³⁶ , qnrB ³⁷ , qnrC ³⁸ , qnrD ³⁹ ,	
ciprofloxacin target		qnrE ⁴⁰ , qnrS ⁴¹	
Enzymatic modification of	-	aac(6')-lb-cr ⁴²	
ciprofloxacin		crpP ⁴³	

Table 2. Medians and ranges of ciprofloxacin MIC fold changes stratified by resistance determinants. Only data from isolates harbouring resistance determinants from a single mechanism are shown.

795

Resistance determinant	Median ciprofloxacin MIC	# of	References
	fold change (range)	isolates	
Gly81Asp (gyrA)	2.6 (1-4.2)	2	49,56
Asp82Gly (gyrA)	1	1	49
Ser83Trp (gyrA)	6.3	1	10
Ser83Leu (gyrA)	23.8 (4-133.3)	9	11,49–51,53–55
Asp87Asn (gyrA)	15.6 (7.5-15.6)	3	51,54,55
Gly81Asp, Asp82Gly (gyrA)	2	1	49
Ser83Leu, Asp87Asn (gyrA)	23.8 (15-23.8)	3	51,54,59
Ser83Leu, Asp87Gly (gyrA)	4266.7	1	77
Asp426Asn (gyrB)	8	1	29
Ser80lle (parC)	1	1	51
Ser83Trp (gyrA), Gly78Asp	33.3	1	11
(parC)			
Ser83Leu (gyrA), Ser80lle (parC)	62.55	1	51
Ser83Leu (gyrA), Ser80Arg	125	1	53
(parC)			
Asp87Asn (gyrA), Ser80lle (parC)	23.8	1	51
Ser83Leu, Asp87Asn (gyrA),	2000 (1066.7-2000)	3	11,51,54
Ser80lle (parC)			
Ser83Leu, Asp87Gly (gyrA),	1024 (256-8533.3)	3	11

Ser80lle (parC)			
Ser83Leu, Asp87Asn (gyrA),	2258.3 (250-4266.7)	2	11,59
Ser80Arg (parC)			
Ser83Leu, D87Y (gyrA), Ser80lle	256	1	11
(parC)			
Ser83Leu, Asp87Asn (gyrA),	533.3	1	11
Glu84Lys (parC)			
Ser83Leu, Asp87Gly (gyrA),	4266.7	1	11
Glu84Lys (parC)			
Ser83Leu, Asp87Asn (gyrA),	1600 (1066.7-2133.3)	2	11
Ser80lle, Glu84Gly (parC)			
acrB: Gly228Asp	16.7	1	61
ΔacrAB	0.1 (0-0.3)	10	30,31,57
ΔtolC	0.3	1	31
marR (various mutations)	3.5 (1.5-4)	14	60
ΔmarR	3.8 (2-218)	5	30,51,54,58,59
acrR (various mutations)	4 (2-16)	6	78
ΔacrR	2.9	1	51
soxS: Ala12Ser	4	1	32
rpoB (various mutations)	3 (1.5-3)	3	33
oqxAB	7.5 (2-16)	17	35,62–64
qepA	8.3 (1.9-64)	13	34,52,65–68,79
qepA, ∆marR	15	1	67
qnrA (unspecified allele)	31.3 (20.8-31.7)	12	80
qnrA1	31 (4-66.7)	37	39,50,52,53,81–89

qnrA3	31.3	1	81
qnrB1	12.5 (4-62.5)	8	52,53,85,87
qnrB2	15.6 (11.8-31.3)	4	81,90
qnrB4	15.6 (15.6-15.6)	3	91
qnrB5	15.6 (15.6-15.6)	2	72
qnrB6	15.6	1	72
qnrB19	11.9	1	82
qnrC1	31.3 (15-62.5)	3	59,38,85
qnrD1	15 (7.5-62.5)	3	59,39,85
qnrE1	62.5	1	40
qnrS (unspecified allele)	12.3 (2-83.3)	6	74,76
qnrS1	33.3 (4-125)	24	39,50,52,53,63,79,81
			,82,85,87,90,92–94
qnrS2	15	1	95
aac(6')Ib-cr	6.9 (1-62.5)	28	52,42,71,73-
			76,79,94,96
crpP	7.5	1	43

Table 3. Median ciprofloxacin MICs for three resistance determinants that were reported at least five times in both experimental and observational data. The EUCAST epidemiological cut-off for ciprofloxacin resistance in *E. coli* is 0.064 mg/L.

Resistance	Median and	Number of	Median and	Number of
determinant(s)	range of	isolates in	range of	isolates in
	ciprofloxacin	experimental	ciprofloxacin	observation
	MIC in	data	MIC in	al data
	experimental		observational	
	data (mg/L)		data (mg/L)	
Ser83Leu	0.25 (0.06-0.38)	5	0.25 (0.125-64)	34
(gyrA)				
qnrS1	0.25 (0.032-1)	16	0.2 (0.1-4)	19
aac(6')lb-cr	0.06 (0.004-0.5)	22	0.25 (0.25-0.5)	5