1 2	<b>Resistance to Quorum Quenching Compounds</b>
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## ABSTRACT

Bacteria have the remarkable ability to communicate as a group in what has become known as quorum sensing (QS), and this trait has been associated with important bacterial phenotypes such as virulence and biofilm formation. Bacteria also have an incredible ability to evolve resistance to all known antimicrobials. Hence, although inhibition of QS has been hailed as a means to reduce virulence in a manner that is impervious to bacterial resistance mechanisms, this approach is unlikely to be a panacea. Here we review the evidence that bacteria can evolve resistance to quorum quenching compounds.

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### REVIEW

Infectious diseases are the leading cause of death (1) and all antibiotics fail (2); therefore, it is imperative to develop novel ways to fight microbial infections. Here we review the use of chemicals that interfere with cell communication and investigate the likelihood that bacteria will evolve resistance to these compounds.

35 Quorum sensing and quorum quenching. Bacteria use secreted chemicals as signals for a variety 36 purposes including virulence and biofilm formation. When the compounds build to a threshold concentration and trigger gene expression, the signals are known as quorum sensing (QS) signals. 37 38 Examples of well-studied QS signals include acylhomoserine lactones, autoinducer 2, and peptide signals, 39 but many other signals exist such as indole (3). In addition to signals, signal synthases, signal receptors, 40 signal response regulators, and regulated genes (QS regulon) are also key components of any QS system 41 (4). For example, LuxI-type enzymes are signal synthases which synthesize acylhomoserine lactones. In 42 addition, LuxR-type regulators are receptor proteins for the autoinducer signals, and signal-receptor 43 binding is responsible for the expression of QS regulons.

Since numerous compounds have been identified that inhibit QS, since QS is linked to virulence, and since inhibition of QS does not usually affect growth (in rich medium), it has been reasoned that inhibition of QS may be an effective means to reduce pathogenicity that is not subject to the usual resistance mechanisms of bacteria (1, 5-8). Inhibition of QS is also known as quorum quenching (QQ)

## 48 and is a form of antivirulence.

49 The well-known examples (9) of QQ compounds include lactonases/acylases that degrade the HSL 50 autoinducers, synthase inhibitors like analogues of anthranilic acid that block synthesis of quinolone 51 signals (10), and receptor inhibitors such as brominated furanones (11). In addition, low concentrations 52 of azithromycin, ceftazidime, and ciprofloxacin (antibiotics) inhibit QS in P. aeruginosa (12). Also, 53 among the thousands of drugs approved for clinical use, the anthelmintic drug niclosamide is a QQ 54 compound (13); this drug reduces surface motility, biofilm formation, and production of the secreted 55 virulence factors, elastase, pyocyanin, and rhamnolipids. The rhizosphere bacterium Stenotrophomonas 56 maltophilia produces cis-9-octadecenoic acid which is a QQ compound that reduces violacein production 57 by Chromobacterium violaceum and biofilm formation by P. aeruginosa (14). The cyclic dipeptide 2,5-58 piperazinedione inhibits QS-dependent traits such as protease activity, elastase activity, and the 59 production of pyocyanin and extracellular polymeric substances (15). Further evidence that QQ 60 compounds are readily found in nature include that of 120 bacterial isolates from healthy coral species, up 61 to 24% of the isolates showed anti-QS activity against three QS indicator strains (16); a possible 62 explanation for this behavior is that the interaction of coral-associated bacteria is competitive so QQ 63 compounds are secreted from the dominant communities to diminish undesirable marine biofouling. From 64 this group, a Favia sp. coral isolate inhibits the biofilm formation of P. aeruginosa and Acinetobacter 65 baumannii through the secretion of a low-molecular mass compound which is not inactivated by heat and 66 protease K (16).

Mathematical modeling for resistance to QQ. There are several manuscripts describing mathematical models of the QS systems of *P. aeruginosa* and other bacterial species that include planktonic cells (17) and biofilm cells (18) in closed and open spaces such as micro fluidic devices (19). Most of these models describe the effect of classical antibiotics and antivirulence compounds and suggest a narrow therapeutic concentration range for the QQ agent to be effective in biofilms. For example, Anguige et al. (20) found that there is a critical biofilm depth in which the QQ treatment is successful; hence, the biofilm penetrability of QQ drugs is a critical parameter to take into account for the design of antivirulence compounds. Therefore, perhaps resistance against QQ in biofilms may develop by restricting the permeability of the QQ drugs by overproducing extracellular matrix components that ` sequester the QQ agent such as the *ndvB*-encoded glucans that sequester aminoglucosides (21). Other theoretical studies show that for biofilms, the time at which QQ treatment is initiated is critical for effective prevention of QS-mediated virulence (22).

79 Beckmann et al. (23) in 2012 developed what was purported to be the first in silico study that showed 80 the possibility of QQ resistance; however, they did not evaluate resistance to QQ compounds since a QQ 81 compound was not introduced but instead signal-blind or signal-deficient mutants were introduced into a 82 wild-type culture which is not the same as developing resistance to QQ compounds. For QQ resistance, 83 the original population would be inhibited from QS by the QQ compound while resistant mutants would 84 be unaffected and continue to QS in the presence of the QQ compound which is a different scenario than 85 that of their simulations. The digital organisms were designed as a type of self-replicating computer 86 program, subject to mutations and natural selection, that exist in a computational environment. These 87 digital organisms communicate with each other by sending messages, and QS is simulated by allowing 88 each organism to receive one message to send six messages to its neighbors creating a positive "signal" 89 feedback loop. In this digital setting, the authors found that wild-type population became resistant to the 90 deleterious effects of the QS mutants (the mutants increased the "energy consumption" in the system, 91 making the system less efficient) by lowering the threshold of the signal necessary to trigger the QS 92 controlled phenotypes. Therefore, the model predicts that wild-type cells would be resistant to take-over 93 by the QS mutants. This interesting theoretical result remains to be tested experimentally.

Computational approaches and molecular docking analysis have also been useful for understanding the binding of QQ compounds to receptor proteins to identify potential QQ compounds. Molecular alignment of receptor proteins (e.g., LuxR-type proteins) indicate that there are preserved motifs in the residues of Y53, Y71, W57, D70, and W85 of TraR and Y56, Y64, W60, D73, and W88 of LasR and that the amino-acid residues D70, W57, and Y53 in TraR and D73, W60, Y56, and S129 in LasR are important for interacting with the autoinducer analogs (24). Autoinducer analogs rosmarinic acid, 100 naringin, chlorogenic acid, morin, and mangiferin have been studied through in silico docking analysis 101 and demonstrated that these compounds can inhibit the production of protease, elastase, and hemolysin 102 (25). In addition, five inducers and three inhibitors which are molecularly distant from the native 103 autoinducer, N-3-oxododecanoyl-L-homoserine lactone, have been investigated as potential QQ 104 compounds (26). As another example of these modeling approaches, competitive inhibitors of SdiA, a 105 signal receptor of the QS signals of other bacteria in Escherichia coli, have been screened from Melia 106 dubia seed extracts, and 27 structurally unrelated compounds to autoinducers show potential for 107 attenuating QS in urophatogenic E. coli (27). Also, molecular docking was used to identify potential QQ 108 compounds from bark extracts of the mangrove plant Rhizopora annamalayana (28). In addition, three 109 compounds which can inhibit the activity of LuxS from Actinobacillus pleuropneumoniae (LuxS 110 catalyzes S-ribosylhomocysteine into homecysteine and autoinducer-2) were identified computationally 111 (29). In the same manner, possible QQ compounds which can inhibit growth and biofilm formation have 112 been found from various extracts for cariogenic Streptococcus mutans isolates using ligand fit docking 113 protocols (30).

114 Early studies on resistance to quorum quenching. The first suggestion that cells may evolve resistance 115 to QQ compounds was presented as an opinion piece by Defoirdt et al. (2) in 2010. The basis for this 116 supposition was collected from several studies showing that the expression of core QS genes is highly 117 variable between different strains of the same Vibrio species and other pathogenic bacteria including P. 118 aeruginosa. These core QS genes are involved in the production/detection of autoinducers as well as in 119 the QS signal transduction; since their variability is heritable, if this variation confers an advantage in 120 fitness under QQ treatment, the authors concluded that natural selection would favor the spread of QQ 121 resistance. Moreover, this group realized that previous arguments that concluded resistance to QQ 122 compounds was unlikely had been incorrectly predicated on the growth of pathogens in complex medium. 123 Up to this point, QQ compounds were routinely tested in rich medium where they were shown to not 124 affect growth and therefore thought not subject to Darwinian selection pressure for resistance. Since 125 pathogens are more likely to encounter conditions more closely resembling minimal media where they are

126 starved for nutrients and where QQ compounds affect growth, it was reasoned that cells may evolve 127 resistance to QQ compounds. In addition, in mice infection models, the number of viable P. aeruginosa 128 bacteria after QQ treatment in the lungs of infected mice decreases and the ability of this pathogen to 129 disseminate in mice is inhibited; hence, even in an absence of a direct effect of the QS inhibitor, the 130 fitness of bacteria during the infection clearly decreases under QS disruption (2). This is not surprising 131 since there are numerous studies that show that QS signals as well as QS-controlled virulence factors have 132 a role in protecting bacteria against the immune system and that disruption of QS systems leads to 133 accelerated death of the bacterial pathogens (31-35).

134 There persists in the literature the misperception that some early QS work demonstrated resistance to 135 QQ compounds. For example, there is an excellent paper by Koch et al. (36) based on a lock-and-key 136 relationship between the receptor and autoinducers that identified substitutions in LuxR (L42A, a point 137 mutation in the LuxR signal biding site) that altered both the binding of the natural ligand 3-oxo-C8-138 homoserine lactone as well as that of QQ compounds. However, resistance to QQ compounds was not 139 investigated (36) as has been suggested (6). Koch et al. did not check the substituted LuxR protein in the 140 original Vibrio host but instead did their work in E. coli, so there were no studies of resistance to a QS 141 system (36). Also, far from conducting experiments on resistance and deducing resistance is possible, the 142 authors concluded the opposite, that resistance to QQ compounds was not likely as they wrote "Although 143 there is no selective pressure imposed by the inhibitors per se, it is conceivable that pathogenic bacteria in 144 the long run might develop resistance to quorum-sensing inhibitors that are based on agonist structure. In 145 contrast, our furanone analysis suggests that through time inhibitors have been selected in nature where 146 single amino acid changes in a separated receptor site leading to resistance are less likely to occur" (36).

Similarly, Zhu et al. (37) studied the ability of AHL analogs to disrupt 3-*oxo*-C8-HSL signaling via TraR in *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* by investigating the ability of these compounds to activate expression of a TraR-regulated promoter. Although claimed otherwise (6), resistance to these compounds was not explored since growth in the presence of these QQ compounds was not studied. Instead, the intent of the authors was to determine if differences in TraR levels affect the ability of *A. tumefaciens* to detect analogs 152 of 3-oxo-C8-HSL, and "resistance" is not mentioned in the manuscript nor was it explored.

Although distinct from demonstrating the development of resistance to QQ compounds, it has also been demonstrated that QQ compounds can select for a more virulent population by reducing the growth advantage of cells that are already deficient in QS relative to the wild-type strain. Kholer et al. (38) showed in a hospital setting and in the lab that the administration of azithromycin with *P. aeruginosa* led to an enrichment of the more virulent wild-type strain relative to *lasR* strains.

Bacteriophage may also play a role in enhancing resistance to QQ compounds. For example, since QS in *E. coli* protects cells against  $\lambda$  phage attack (39), in the presence of bacteriophages and a QQ compound, QQ-resistant bacteria would have a competitive advantage relative to QQ-sensitive individuals since the QQ-resistant bacteria would have an active QS system that would make them less susceptible to phage attack. Therefore, bacteriophage may select for QQ-resistant clones.

163 **Resistance to QS inhibition.** The first demonstration that cells evolve resistance to QQ techniques was 164 that of Maeda et al. (40) (published on-line in 2011). The opportunistic pathogen P. aeruginosa was used 165 as the reference bacterium since it is notorious for causing severe infections and since it is one of the main 166 QS bacterial model systems. A novel screen was developed to test if cells could evolve resistance to a QQ 167 compound by using adenosine as the sole carbon source; growth on adenosine requires an active 168 LasI/LasR N-3-oxododecanoyl homoserine lactone QS system since the expression of nucleoside 169 hydrolase (nuh) gene is under its control. Hence, if QQ compounds inhibit the LasI/LasR system, the cells 170 grow more slowly on adenosine (40) and if cells evolve resistance to the QQ compound, they will grow 171 more rapidly on adenosine. In addition, adenosine inhibits the biofilm formation of *P. aeruginosa* (41), is 172 theorized to be linked to QS to prevent cheating (42), and is produced from ATP at high levels in the 173 human host (up to 5 mM) during surgical injury, ischemia and inflammation, so it is a relevant carbon 174 source for this pathogen and one that affects its physiology significantly. The gold standard of QQ 175 compounds, the synthetic brominated furanone 4-bromo-5-(bromomethylene)-2(5H)-furanone, known as 176 C-30 (43), that was derived from the natural brominated furanone (5Z)-4-bromo-5-(bromomethylene)-3-177 butyl-2(5H)-furanone of the algae Delisea pulchra, was used since it is by far the best characterized QQ

compound. For example, this family of compounds inhibits all three QS systems of V. harveyi (11). 179 Maeda et al. (40) used a concentration of brominated furanone (C-30) that did not affect growth in rich 180 medium (so it did not inhibit growth as a toxin) and used both transposon mutagenesis and spontaneous 181 mutants to identify resistant bacteria. The mechanism for this resistance in the transposon mutants was 182 that the bacteria developed mexR and nalC mutations (40); these genes encode repressors of the MexAB-183 OprM multi-drug resistance operon so as a result of the mutations, the QQ compound was more readily 184 effluxed (a result that was not anticipated). Consistent with the resistance to C-30 of the mexR mutant 185 during growth on adenosine, C-30 had diminished ability to reduce several QS controlled virulence 186 factors and phenotypes in the mexR muant and the pathogenicity of the mexR mutant against the nematode 187 Caenorhabditis elegans was not attenuated by the addition of C-30 (40). Critically, this group also used 188 cells from cystic fibrosis patients (Liverpool epidemic strain 12142) with mexR/nalC mutations to show 189 that even in the absence of the QS inhibitor, cells naturally evolve resistance to QQ compounds in the 190 pathogenic state when confronted with the pressures of antibiotic treatment; hence, antibiotic treatment 191 can lead to resistance to QQ compounds. In contrast to the transposon mutants, the spontaneous mutants 192 isolated by Maeda et al. (44) had intact mexR and nalC genes, indicating resistance can also rise by other 193 uncharacterized mechanisms. Therefore, the authors showed that cells develop resistance to QQ 194 compounds through different mechanisms and that these mutations actually occur in a clinical setting. 195 The fact that the mutations arise in a clinical setting demonstrates that it does not matter whether growth 196 depends on "public" or "private" goods; the crux is that cells were shown definitely to evolve resistance 197 to QQ compounds even in the absence of previous exposure to them.

198 It may be argued that the Maeda et al. study (44) was predicated on using the QQ compound (C-30) 199 under conditions that it inhibited growth (growth on adenosine requires an active QS system). However, 200 this situation of QQ affecting growth is common since it has been shown that another well-publicized QQ 201 compound, LED229, which inhibits QseC-based signaling in enterohemorrhagic *E. coli* (45), also affects 202 growth (although claimed otherwise) since deletions in *qseC* results in numerous metabolic changes (9). 203 Also, since QS often involves hundreds of genes (46, 47), it is reasonable that inhibiting QS outside of 204 laboratory conditions (i.e., growth in non-rich medium) may influence growth (9).

205 Additional clinical evidence of the ability of strains to evolve resistance to QQ compounds was 206 provided by studying the resistance of Mexican clinical isolates from urine, blood, and catheter tips of 207 children to brominated furanone (C-30) and to 5-fluorouracil (5-FU) (48). From a screen of P. aeruginosa 208 biofilm mutants, uracil was determined to act as a positive signal for biofilm formation, and 5-FU was 209 shown to be effective in inhibiting this signaling thereby repressing biofilm formation, reducing 210 significantly QS phenotypes (10 µM 5-FU reduced elastase activity by 86%, eliminated pyocyanin 211 production, reduced rhamnolipid production by 87%, eliminated swarming, and eliminated PQS 212 production), and reducing pathogenicity (5-FU increased barley germination) (49). This reduction of P. 213 aeruginosa pathogenicity by 5-FU was re-discovered by Imperi et al. (50) four years later when they 214 demonstrated that 5-fluorocytosine, which they showed is converted to 5-FU for its activity, also reduces 215 pyoverdine, PrpL protease, and exotoxin in P. aeruginosa. 5-FU has also been used successfully in 216 human trials as a coating for catheters (51) making it the first QQ compound to be used in medicine and 217 the first QQ compound to have undergone large-scale human trials.

To identify strains resistant to 5-FU, the authors (48) assayed pyocyanin, elastase, and alkaline protease production of eight clinical strains and found two strains resistant to the brominated furanone C-30. One of the resistant strains was not sensitive to antibiotics, indicating that the C-30 resistance mechanism of this strain is likely not related to active efflux. Also, some clinical isolates showed resistance for at least one phenotype with 5-FU (48).

Subsequent to the first demonstration of resistance to QS compounds using both realistic lab constructs as well as clinical strains by Maeda et al. (40), the Schuster lab (52) published an hypothesis/opinion report in which QS mimic approaches were used rather than realistic ones and in which no QS inhibitor was utilized. They utilized a *P. aeruginosa lasR rhlR* strain as a mimic of a QQsensitive strain and the wild-type strain as a QQ-resistant mimic. In this artificial system, they determined that cells resistant to QQ compounds should not have a growth advantage when public goods are utilized (i.e., when nutrients are processed extracellularly by QS-related enzymes) and that cells resistant to QQ 230 compounds should have a growth advantage when non-public goods are utilized (i.e., when nutrients are 231 processed by intracellularly by QS enzymes) (52). Hence, their results using QS mimics corroborated 232 those results of Maeda et al. (40) for their laboratory strains grown with adenosine as the intracellular 233 nutrient. For the more complex case of growth in the lungs of cystic fibrosis patients and the QQ resistant 234 mutants that were isolated from this real environment by Maeda et al. (40), the relevance of the Schuster 235 study is not clear. Also, the result that the QQ resistant mutations that were identified by Maeda et al. (40) 236 had enhanced efflux rather than the predicted changes in QS receptors which shows that resistance may 237 arise in ways not necessarily related to changes in QS receptors (6).

In addition, moderate resistance against the non-biocidal anti-biofilm group 2 capsule polysaccharide (G2cps), that works by a still unknown mechanisms in *E. coli*, can be achieved by mutations in several *loci* that affect the surface properties of the bacteria (53). This work confirms that resistance against compounds that do not impair growth is possible, although multiple mutations were required in this case and so it was reasoned that such resistance would be rare.

243 The above discussed articles (2, 40, 48) are pioneering and open a whole new emergent research area, 244 that of QQ resistance. In addition the results shown (40, 48) may be significant for the clinic since they 245 indicate that the treatment of multiple antibiotic resistant strains with active efflux pumps with HSL 246 analogues such as C-30 may be futile, and suggest that since there is a common resistance mechanism 247 between antibiotics and QQ compounds, treatment with HSL analogues alone could possibly select 248 multiple antibiotic resistance as well. Also it should be taken in to account that QS disruption renders 249 bacteria more sensitive to some antibiotics, like tobramycin particularly in the biofilm mode of growth 250 (54), (43). Therefore, for concomitant treatment of QQ and classical antibiotics, even if QQ compounds 251 do not exert selective pressure by themselves, they will exert it indirectly by making cells more sensitive 252 to antibiotics.

Perspectives: New QQ resistance mechanisms. In addition to active efflux, other ways to evolve resistance against QQ compounds should exist as suggested (40). This is to be expected since resistance to classical antibiotics can be achieved in many ways, such as a decrease in the permeability of the compounds, mutation of the target, overexpression of antibiotic targets, as well as degradation/modification of the antibiotics. Along these lines, Maeda et al. found that C-30 can be degraded by PA14 (unpublished results) and are currently investigating if this ability is enhanced in some C-30 resistant clinical isolates.

260 Further work is also required to determine if resistance against other kinds of quorum quenchers, such 261 as signal degrading enzymes, like lactonases or acylases for HSL autoinducers is possible. Hence, it is 262 important to distinguish those QQ compounds that must enter the cell to be effective (e.g., brominated 263 furanones) and those that QQ compounds that work extracellularly (e.g., lactonases) since there may be 264 less pressure to evolve resistance for extracellular compounds because greater efflux should not affect the 265 use of these compounds (55). Although to our knowledge no experimental efforts have been devoted to 266 explore this possibility, it can be anticipated that ways in which bacteria could develop resistance against 267 these agents could be an increase in autoinducer production, synthesis of modified autoinducers (less 268 susceptible against the attack of the degrading enzymes), or mutations in the LuxR-like receptors that 269 increase their affinity to the autoinducers (so the necessary threshold of autoinducer concentration will 270 decrease). Examples of the first two possibilities (increase in AI production and presence of different 271 variants of autoinducers) have already been reviewed (2) and for the third possibility, it has been 272 demonstrated that some mutations in Vibrio fischeri LuxR, that normally recognizes the 3-oxo-C6-HSL 273 signal, make it able to respond to different autoinducers like octanoyl-HSL, pentanoyl-HSL and 274 tetradecanoyl-HSL and moreover some subset of these mutations also increase their sensitivity to the 275 endogenous signal (56).

The choice to inhibit QS as a means to inhibit pathogens (6) is also a questionable goal since it violates one of the main postulates of preventing resistance, namely that it is far better to make antivirulence drugs that are specific rather than to target general agents (57). Since QS often involves hundreds of gene targets (46, 47), bacteria may use multiple means to thwart this approach. Additional complications for this approach are that since QS is used by many bacteria, beneficial microorganisms may also be affected by any general approach (9, 58); for example, in the gut where hundreds of different species reside. 282 Complicating matters further in mixed cultures, some pathogenic genes are activated by QS (e.g., *P. aeruginosa*) (47) while others are inactivated (e.g., *Vibrio cholerae*) (59); hence, QQ approaches may
284 have unintended consequences in communities with many bacteria.

285 Conclusions. As outlined here, bacteria have been shown to evolve resistance to QQ compounds both in 286 lab studies and in the clinic and to evolve resistance to QQ compounds even without their use (i.e., when 287 bacteria are confronted with antibiotics and mutation in efflux pump occurs); hence, we should be less 288 sanguine about the possibilities that these novel QQ compounds are as robust as frequently indicated in 289 the current literature (6). One actual mechanism of QQ resistance involving enhanced efflux (40) is 290 shown in Fig. 1A whereas Fig. 1B shows the predicted mechanism of QQ resistance of LasR receptor 291 insensitivity based on the lock-and-key relationship through the amino-acid change, L42A, which led to 292 an inability of autoinducer binding. Hopefully, even with resistance arising, QQ compounds may be used 293 in combination with other antimicrobials. However, the exaggerated claims by many authors on the 294 benefits of these compounds should be tempered.

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# **FIGURE CAPTION**

# Fig. 1. Mechanism of actual and predicted inhibition to quorum quenching compounds. (A) Actual quorum quenching resistance in *P. aeruginosa* based on enhanced efflux of furanone C-30 due to mutations in the genes that encode efflux repressors MexR and NalC (40). (B) Predicted LasR receptor insensitivity to C-30 based on the lock-and-key concept (36). AI: autoinducer, QS: quorum sensing, OM: outer membrane, CM: cytosolic membrane.

