

·SU. 1

## **Evolution of resistance to old (and new) antibiotics:** which are the relevant factors to measure for risk prediction?

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Mutation rates are often used to predict the risk of resistance development (by pharmaceutical industry, researchers etc.)

Is this relevant or just something that is relatively easy to measure?

Main conjecture:

Mutation rate to resistance is a poor predictor of the risk of emergence of resistance in a patient

Are we basing dosing strategies to reduce emergence of resistance on measurements of the wrong parameters?

Is the pharmaceutical industry discontinuing drug development, because of resistance issues, for the wrong reasons?



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### Many factors influence the emergence UNIVERSITET and transmission of resistant bacteria

- Selective pressures (antibiotics, heavy metals, biocides) 1.
- Emergence rates (mutation- and horizontal gene transfer rates, 1. population sizes
- ess costs of resistance 3.

Assion dynamics (host population structure density, immunity, migration, hygienic measures



Björkman et al PNAS 1998, Björkman et al Science 2000, Nilsson et al PNAS 2005, Andersson and Hughes Nature Rev Microbiol 2010, Andersson and Hughes Nature Rev Microbiol 2014







### How to measure the relevant parameters?

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#### 1. Selective pressures

a. Competition experiments R+S at different antibiotic concentrations (Classical selective window not sufficient)





# Slower resistance development when:

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Rates of emergence of resistance are expected to be slow when:

#### For mutational resistance

- 1. Multiple targets, e.g. beta-lactams acting on several PBPs
- 2. Multiple genes encoding same target, e.g. drugs binding to rRNA and inhibiting translation (aminoglycosides, macrolides, tetracyclines etc.)

For horizontally transferred resistance

- 1. Low ecological connectivity
- 2. Genetic barriers (low HGT rates, restriction/CRISPR systems, recombination barriers etc.)

**Rule of thumb in industry:** Mutation rate less than 10<sup>-8</sup> with selection at 4xMIC of susceptible wt Presently used AB that would not pass that bar if tested against, for example, E. coli, Salmonella

Aminoglycosides (gidB knockouts) Collstin (pmrAB point mutations) Rifampicin (rpoB point mutations) Fosfomycin (5 genes) Mecillinam (>40 genes) Nitrofurantoin (nsfAB knockouts) Fluoroquinolones (marR knockouts) 10<sup>-7</sup>/cell/generation, 10xMIC 10<sup>-6</sup>/cell/generation, 2-35xMIC 10<sup>-8</sup>/cell/generation, >5xMIC 10<sup>-7</sup>/cell/generation, 6-1000xMIC 10<sup>-6</sup>/cell/generation, 10-200xMIC 10<sup>-7</sup>/cell/generation, 2xMIC 10<sup>-7</sup>/cell/generation, 2xMIC



# Slower resistance development when:

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#### Fitness cost of resistance is high (and difficult to compensate)

Examples of antibiotics with very high mutation rates but also typically high fitness cost mutations

Fosfomycin (about 5 genes) Mecillinam (>40 genes) Nitrofurantoin (nsfAB)

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#### Mutation rate, resistance increase

10<sup>-7</sup>/cell/generation, 6-1000xMIC 10<sup>-6</sup>/cell/generation, 10-200xMIC 10<sup>-7</sup>/cell/generation, 2xMIC

#### Relative fitness (susceptible wt =1)

0.75-0.85 0.29-0.76 0.90-0.95

> Nilsson et al AAC 2003 Sandegren et al JAC 2008 Thulin et al 2014



# Why mutation rate is not a good predictor of the risk of clinical resistance development

- Mutation rates to resistance typically in the range of 10<sup>-10</sup> (e.g. lineozolid) to 10<sup>-6</sup> (e.g. mecillinam)
- 2. 1/population size > mutation rate for most types of infections
   → pre-existing resistant mutants in most populations

3. I.e. for many infections the appearance of resistant mutants is not (strongly) limited by the mutation supply rate



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#### Experimental support: Fosfomycin, mecillinam and nitrofurantoin resistance in E **UNIVERSITET**

-Fosfomycin, mecillinam and nitrofurantoin are typically used for treatment of lower UTIS

-Fosfomycin inhibits early step in cell wall biosynthesis (MurA)

-Mecillinam inhibits late step in cell wall biosynthesis (MrdA-PBP2)

-Nitrofurantoin is converted by bacterial nitroreductases to a highly reactive electrophilic compound that damages proteins and DNA



# A paradox, sort of...

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Mutation rate to resistance high, 10<sup>-7</sup> to 10<sup>-6</sup>/cell/gen, because of common loss-of-function mutations

Population size: ca. 105-108 bacteria/ml

Urine volume: 1-300 ml

Total bacterial population size in bladder: typically >>10<sup>6</sup>

Based on these population sizes and mutation rates, modeling shows that probabilities for fixation of fosfomycin, mecillinam and nitrofurantoin resistant mutants during treatment are very high (20-50%)

However: -Resistance development during treatment low

So how can we account for this?

- 1. Population dynamics
- 2. Fitness







Thulin et al 2014



# Three factors prevent establishment of frequently occurring resistant mutants:

- Fitness cost associated with resistance --> grows to slowly to fix
- 2. Resistance is not complete, i.e. with increasing antibiotic concentration the growth rate is reduced below a threshold level --> grows to slowly to fix

Turnover (e.g. bladder flow, immune system) of bacterial population  $\rightarrow$  even though mutants appear they do not fix



value and the level of resistance of most resistant mutants



# Summary:

- 1. Mutation rate (and by inference static time-kill) is a poor predictor of the risk of resistance development clinically
- 2. To perform better predictions we need to:

a. Determine fitness of resistant mutants in absence and presence of drug, i.e. growth rate = f (antibiotic concentration)

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b. Include in vivo population sizes of the relevant pathogens and infections

(why has 10<sup>6</sup>-10<sup>7</sup> become standard for static time-kill?)

c. Include bacterial dynamics during infection; e.g. turnover rates, by immune system or other factors (e.g. micturition)
(will resistance development towards mecillinam, fosfomycin, nitrofurantoin be faster if used for other infections than UTIs?)

3. Too strict implementation of breakpoints might preclude us from using still effective antibiotics