

Antibiotic Resistance Development in Bacterial Biofilms



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Abstract Biofilms are organized bacterial communities embedded in an extracellular polymeric matrix attached to living or abiotic surfaces or forming aggregates. This mode of growth is characteristically associated with chronic infections, marked by the persistence of the bacteria regardless of proper antimicrobial therapies. Biofilms are up to 100–1000 times more resistant to antibiotics than planktonic cells. The basis for resistance to antimicrobials in biofilms is complex and involves both mechanisms of tolerance and classical resistance. Physical, physiological, adaptive and in vivo tolerance together with the *persister* phenomenon and the expression of specific genes lay at the origin of the recalcitrant (or tolerant) nature of the biofilm to antibiotics. On the other hand, mutational resistance and horizontal gene transfer determine the genetic changes leading to genuine resistance to antimicrobials. In this chapter, using the bacterium *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* as an archetypal microorganism, we explore the different mechanisms of antibiotic resistance development in biofilms.

1 Introduction

Biofilms are classically defined as organized bacterial communities embedded in an extracellular polymeric matrix attached to living or abiotic surfaces (Stoodley et al. 2002). This social bacterial structure is highly prevalent in nature (Petrova and Sauer 2012) and arises as an adaptation strategy for survival in hostile environments, including the human host (Fux et al. 2005). From a clinical point of view, the transition from a planktonic to a biofilm mode of growth frequently determines the establishment of a chronic infection (Smith et al. 2006; Oliver et al. 2007). Consequently, biofilms are representatively implicated in chronic infections, in contrast to

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planktonic bacteria that are involved in acute processes (Costerton et al. 1999). Biofilm-related chronic infections are characterized by the persistence of the aetiological agent, despite (in principle) adequate antibiotic therapy and host immune responses. In general, up to 65–80% of all infections are associated with biofilm formation (Jamal et al. 2018). These infections encompass a wide range, from those related to indwelling medical devices (e.g., catheters, prosthetic joints, and surgical implants) to tissue infections, such as otitis media, osteomyelitis, rhinosinusitis, wound infections or chronic respiratory infections in cystic fibrosis (CF) patients (Høiby et al. 2015a).

In device-associated chronic infections, replacing the implant to remove biofilms is an effective intervention strategy. However, for tissue or respiratory chronic biofilm infections, the only available therapy to date is antibiotic treatment. Long-term therapies with antibiotics, despite in vitro susceptibility, frequently lead to a longstanding inflammatory response, together with a high risk of antibiotic resistance development, thus triggering an unavoidable chronic infection extremely difficult to eradicate.

One of the most important characteristics of biofilms is their increased tolerance to antimicrobial agents (Wimpenny et al. 2000). Compared to planktonic cells biofilms are up to 100–1000 times less susceptible to antibiotics and disinfectants (Costerton et al. 1987, 1999; Bjarnsholt et al. 2005).

The mechanisms of resistance and tolerance differ depending on the specific antimicrobial agent, the bacterial strain and species, the age and developmental stage of the biofilm, and the biofilm growth conditions (Ito et al. 2009; Alhede et al. 2011; Bowler et al. 2012; Haaber et al. 2012; Stewart et al. 2015).

Commonly for biofilm infections, the terms tolerance and resistance are used synonymous. Moreover, the term tolerance recurrently encompasses, or even replaces, that of resistance. However, it is necessary to distinguish their different conceptual meaning.

In general, tolerance of biofilms to antibiotics is multifactorial and includes physical, physiological, environmental, and inducible genetic factors, whereas antibiotic resistance needs the involvement of acquired or heritable processes that alter the genetic background of bacteria and do not revert in the absence of antibiotics. In other words, tolerance can be defined as the survival in the presence of the antibiotic due to the biofilm itself. In this case, single dispersed cells from biofilms are susceptible to antibiotics. The development of conventional resistance requires stable genetic changes like point mutations or horizontal gene transfer (Lewis 2008). In all likelihood, the tolerance phenomenon precedes and promotes antibiotic resistance development in biofilms. Though ultimately, both tolerance and resistance mechanisms act synergistically, thus seriously reducing the options of an effective antimicrobial treatment for chronic infections.

Understanding the mechanisms underlying biofilm-specific antibiotic resistance and tolerance will help guide the selection of efficient treatments to fight chronic infections.

In this chapter, using the bacterium *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* as a model, we examine the different mechanisms of resistance development in biofilms.

2 Mechanisms of Tolerance to Antibiotics in Biofilms

2.1 *Physical Tolerance*

Traditionally, it was considered that diffusion of antibiotics was restricted by the extracellular biofilm matrix. While biofilm matrices do not inhibit the diffusion of antibiotic molecules, restricted penetration through biofilms may occur when antibiotics bind to components of the matrix or the bacterial membranes (Walters et al. 2003; Tseng et al. 2013). As an example, using fluorescently labeled antibiotics it has been demonstrated that positively charged peptides and aminoglycosides, like tobramycin, are sequestered in the negatively charged extracellular matrix (Walters et al. 2003; Chiang et al. 2013), whereas the neutral ciprofloxacin readily penetrates into the biofilms (Tseng et al. 2013). The presence of anionic extracellular DNA (eDNA) and alginate in the extracellular matrix are responsible for the capture and consequently the reduced activity observed for positively charged antibiotic classes, rather than an inability to diffuse across the biofilm mass (Cao et al. 2016; Mulcahy et al. 2008). This retardation in the entrance of the antibiotic, which ultimately exposes the biofilm to lower antibiotic concentrations, gives time and helps the bacteria to adapt to a more tolerant state (Bagge et al. 2004a; Pamp et al. 2008a; Kindrachuk et al. 2011; Ciofu and Tolker-Nielsen 2019).

2.2 *Physiological Tolerance*

Another striking characteristic of biofilms is their compartmentalization in different metabolic states. This heterogeneity is due to and at the same time a consequence of the decreasing concentrations of oxygen and nutrients along the biofilm that established gradients of metabolic stages. Thus, the consumption of oxygen and nutrients by the metabolically active bacteria located in the periphery of the biofilm leave scarce oxygen and nutrients to the bacteria placed inside the biofilm (Stewart et al. 2016). Consequently, subpopulations at the periphery of the biofilm show an important physiological activity, whereas subpopulations positioned at the inner parts of the biofilm show a significantly reduced physiological activity or even a total lack of activity with no evidence of growth (Pamp et al. 2008a; Ciofu and Tolker-Nielsen 2019). Numerous antibiotics target processes that take place in metabolically active bacteria (e.g. replication, transcription, translation, and cell wall synthesis), thus biofilm areas with low metabolic activity may display increased antimicrobial tolerance with an impact on the general biofilm susceptibility. Likewise, it has been shown that some antibiotics that work under aerobic conditions (e.g., tobramycin, ciprofloxacin and tetracycline) are only effective on biofilm cells located at the air interface and not at other areas of the microcolony (Walters et al. 2003; Pamp et al. 2008a; Stewart et al. 2016). In addition, it has been recently shown that reactive oxygen species (ROS) are thought to play a role in antibiotic-induced

cell death, so hypoxia may additionally promote biofilm cell survival upon antibiotic exposure due to the fact that ROS production requires molecular oxygen (Van Acker et al. 2013; Jensen et al. 2014; Van Acker and Coenye 2016). Thus, other than the gradient of nutrients, low oxygen concentrations along the biofilm impair the efficacy of ROS-dependent bactericidal antibiotics and decrease bacterial metabolism (Jensen et al. 2014; Van Acker and Coenye 2016; Van Acker et al. 2016).

Related to this, it is well known that hypoxia is associated with increasing antibiotic tolerance through the upregulation of efflux pumps, which is an induced, non-specific antibiotic tolerance mechanism. Concerning biofilms, it is noteworthy that various studies have revealed differential expression of several conventional and biofilm-specific antibiotic resistance genes in biofilms (Whiteley et al. 2001). It has been shown that in oxygen-starved planktonic cells, MexEF-OprN efflux pump genes are upregulated and contribute to antibiotic tolerance (Schaible et al. 2010) like MexEF-OprN or MexCD-OprJ. Moreover, the MexCD-OprJ efflux pump locus was shown to be transcriptionally upregulated in *P. aeruginosa* biofilms grown under low oxygen conditions (Tata et al. 2016), establishing a close connection between physiological tolerance and adaptive resistance mechanisms.

In addition to the reduction of metabolic activity, impairment of the efficacy of ROS-dependent antibiotics, and upregulation of efflux pumps; the compartmentalization of the biofilm microenvironment due to the declining gradients of oxygen and nutrients could lead to areas of starved cells. It has been shown that responses to nutrient and iron starvation, like the stringent response, also play an important role in the tolerance of biofilms to antibiotics (Nguyen et al. 2011; Bernier et al. 2013).

2.3 *Persisters*

The most extreme stage regarding metabolic inactivity could be represented by the characteristic dormant or persistent cells of biofilms; popularly called *persisters*. This is a spore-like cell state, dormant and incapable of growth, that protects bacteria from the action of antibiotics (Lewis 2008, 2010). However, as a tolerance mechanism, the refractoriness to antibiotics is not heritable and when *persister* cells are segregated from the biofilm and grown individually, they display the same pattern of antibiotic susceptibility as the original population (Brauner et al. 2016). Importantly, after treatment they can revert to the vegetative state, repopulating the biofilm, and thus reconstituting the infection, leading to prolonged treatment duration (Lewis 2008, 2010; Barraud et al. 2013). *Persisters* represent less than 0.1% of the biofilm population and have been documented in a number of bacterial species, including *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, *Escherichia coli*, *Salmonella enterica* subsp. *enterica* serovar Typhimurium and *P. aeruginosa*. Several mechanisms, such as reduced levels of cellular energy (low intracellular ATP levels), and adaptive responses have been associated in *persister* cell formation (Wilmaerts et al. 2019).

2.4 Expression of Specific Genes

A number of genes have been identified as being specifically involved in the tolerance of biofilms to antibiotics. In general, these genes are characteristically overexpressed in biofilm growth and this increase in their expression is related to tolerance to antibiotics. This is a different concept from adaptive resistance which requires the presence of the antibiotic to induce the resistance mechanism.

For instance, the biofilm resistance locus regulator, BrlR, was found to be a Mer-like transcriptional activator of biofilm-specific antibiotic tolerance in *P. aeruginosa* by its interaction with a variety of different potential targets (Poudyal and Sauer 2018). For example; activating the expression of the MexAB-oprM and MexEF-oprN efflux pumps (Liao et al. 2013), inducing the production of the ABC transporters, like the ABC transporter PA1874–1877, which has been found to be 10 times more expressed in *P. aeruginosa* biofilms compared to planktonic cells (Poudyal and Sauer 2018; Zhang and Mah 2008), or altering the expression of genes encoding modification of LPS, membrane protein composition, or metabolism and energy generation.

As mentioned before, multidrug efflux pumps efficiently eject antibiotics out of the cell and their induction through different ways is an important factor for antibiotic tolerance in biofilms. Different forms of stresses can induce efflux pumps in paradigmatic biofilms of *P. aeruginosa*, such as oxidative stress, nitrosative stress and membrane-damaging agents can activate MexXY-OprM, MexEF-OprN and MexCD-OprJ, respectively (Poole 2014).

2.5 Adaptive Tolerance

We refer to adaptive tolerance as an inducible mechanism that depends on the antibiotic presence and does not require genetic changes, consequently; it is considered a tolerance mechanism. Adaptive tolerance is mediated by regulatory networks that lead to its switch off or reversion when the antibiotic molecules disappear. Thus, similarly to *persisters*, an on/off model with long-term consequences can be evidenced; if cells are not completely eradicated, once the treatment is stopped resettlement of susceptible biofilms can occur.

Examples of adaptive tolerance in *P. aeruginosa* are the induction of AmpC β -lactamase, LPS alteration and the upregulation of efflux pumps.

The induction of AmpC β -lactamase through the exposure to β -lactam antibiotics, as imipenem or ceftazidime, is likely the main adaptive tolerance mechanisms in *P. aeruginosa* biofilms (Giwerzman et al. 1991, 1992). Bagge et al. demonstrated that the expression of this enzyme followed a special structural distribution being characteristically concentrated at the periphery of the biofilms (Bagge et al. 2004b).

Similarly, exposure of *P. aeruginosa* biofilms to colistin was shown to upregulate the *pmr* and *arn* genes in the metabolically active peripheral subpopulations (Pamp

et al. 2008a). The *arn* gene products alter the negative charge of LPS that leads to a decrease in the uptake of polymyxins and consequently, an increase in the biofilm tolerance to the cationic peptides (Lewenza 2013). Upregulation of MexAB-OprM efflux pump is also involved in colistin biofilm tolerance (Pamp et al. 2008a). Interestingly, tolerance to colistin is linked to metabolically active cells, thus establishing a pattern for combination of antibiotics with different mechanisms of action (Pamp et al. 2008a).

2.6 *In Vivo Tolerance*

What has been exposed so far refers to intrinsic factors of the biofilm special atmosphere that leads to the physiological tolerance but, as well as biofilm micro-environment inherent conditions, there is also the in vivo contribution of the host immune system by, for example, the involvement of polymorphonuclear leukocytes (PMNs). These cells are known to consume oxygen, thus, further impacting the mechanisms of tolerance described previously, and to release eDNA which, also contributes to the antibiotic tolerance through the sequestration of cationic antibiotics (Kolpen et al. 2010; Kragh et al. 2014; Worlitzsch et al. 2002).

Apart from the PMNs action, several circumstances are implicated in the in vivo tolerance of biofilms, for example, the different in vitro/in vivo sizes of biofilms (Høiby et al. 2015b), their placement in clusters (Bjarnsholt et al. 2013) or the polymicrobial nature of in vivo biofilms (Burmolle et al. 2010). Regarding the accessibility of antibiotics, biofilm has been considered as a third compartment after tissue (second) and blood (first) (Cao et al. 2015).

3 Antibiotic Resistance Development in Biofilms

3.1 *Mutational Resistance*

The described tolerance mechanisms have been extensively studied and clearly related to the recalcitrance of biofilms to antibiotics; however, there is still an important gap of knowledge regarding the effect and relevance of conventional resistance mutational mechanisms in the reduced antibiotic susceptibility of biofilms.

According to current knowledge, it would be reasonable to summarize that tolerance mechanisms provide a fertile ground for the emergence of antibiotic-resistant mutants (Levin-Reisman et al. 2017).

Traditionally, the balance between the evolution, driven by mutation and selection and determining the adaptability to new environments or to adverse conditions, and stability of genetic information, related with the population fitness and the perpetuation of species, shapes the mutation rate (Levin-Reisman et al. 2017).

A priori, exceeding limits of the normal mutation rate could lead to an evolutionary death by no adaptability (hypomutation) or to short-time death by the accumulation of deleterious mutations (hypermutation), (Radman et al. 1999). However, in some situations, e.g., when confronting new, fluctuating or stressful environments, mutators can be amplified by being co-selected with adaptive mutations (Sniegowski et al. 1997; Taddei et al. 1997; Mao et al. 1997) and thus hypermutation could be advantageous.

Hypermutators have a spontaneous mutation rate increased from 100- to 1000-fold due to defects in DNA repair or errors in the avoidance systems, frequently affecting the key genes of the methyl-directed mismatch repair system (MMSR) *mutS*, *mutL* or *uvrD* (*mutU*), (Miller 1996). Moreover, mutator phenotype can arise from mutations affecting the 8-oxo-dG (or GO) repair system genes (*mutM*, *mutY* and *mutT*), as well as genes involved in the prevention of oxidative damage produced by reactive oxygen species (ROS) (*oxyR*, *sodA* and *pfpI*), (Miller 1996; Rodríguez-Rojas and Blázquez 2009).

It has been reported that hypermutator strains were extremely high prevalent in the context of chronic respiratory infections in CF patients (Oliver et al. 2000). Mutators, mainly due to deficiencies in the DNA mismatch repair (MMR) system (frequently in the *mutS* gene), represented 20% of the total number of *P. aeruginosa* isolates and were found in 37% of patients (Oliver et al. 2000, 2002), which is in contrast to the low prevalence (<1%) of this feature in acute infections (Gutiérrez et al. 2004). Likewise, in other respiratory infections such as bronchiectasis, or chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) (Maciá et al. 2005), a very high prevalence of hypermutable strains was also documented and again, hypermutation was mainly due to errors in MMRS, especially in *mutS* (Oliver et al. 2002; Maciá et al. 2005). Similarly, an association between hypermutation and chronic infections was also established in other microorganisms (Watson et al. 2004; Labat et al. 2005; Prunier et al. 2003).

The proportion of hypermutable isolates can vary from less than 1% at acute infections, going through 6% at environmental settings, or 10% at the onset of chronic infection, to up to 65% at chronical phases (Oliver et al. 2000; Gutiérrez et al. 2004; Maciá et al. 2005; Martínez-Solano et al. 2008; Montanari et al. 2007; Kenna et al. 2007; Mena et al. 2008).

Nevertheless, one of the characteristics of hypermutator strains with the greatest clinical impact is their association with high antibiotic resistance rates (Oliver et al. 2000; Maciá et al. 2005). Indeed, it was shown by in vitro and in vivo experiments that hypermutation dramatically favors resistance development during antibiotic exposure (Oliver et al. 2000; Maciá et al. 2005; Woodford and Ellington 2007; Blázquez et al. 2002).

In recent years, studies focussing on the effects of hypermutation on biofilms development showed that mutagenesis is intrinsically increased in biofilms and that hypermutation plays an important role in development, adaptation and diversification processes (Conibear et al. 2009; Webb et al. 2003; Boles and Singh 2008; Driffield et al. 2008).

In fact, it was demonstrated that MMRS deficient mutants were associated with enhanced micro-colony development and increased rates of phenotypic diversification, which conferred improved competitiveness (Luján et al. 2011).

Recently, studies have been conducted to assess the effect of hypermutation on the resistance to antibiotics in biofilms. For example, the antibiotic azithromycin showed promising results in the treatment of chronic respiratory infections by *P. aeruginosa*. Although macrolides are not active against *P. aeruginosa* in standard in vitro susceptibility tests, these antibiotics showed bactericidal activity on stationary phase cells (Imamura et al. 2005; Saiman et al. 2003). In a biofilm model using the Calgary device it was shown that azithromycin was active against *P. aeruginosa* biofilms, however, resistant mutants were readily selected, especially in hypermutable strains (MMRS deficient mutants) (Mulet et al. 2009). The main resistance mechanism was found to be the hyperexpression of MexCD-OprJ, due to *nfxB* mutations, which collaterally showed cross-resistance to other unrelated antipseudomonal agents, such as ciprofloxacin or cefepime, and hypersusceptibility to other drugs, such as imipenem or tobramycin (Mulet et al. 2009). This work demonstrated the impact of hypermutation on antibiotic resistance in biofilms and provides guidance in the selection of appropriate antipseudomonal therapies in CF patients under azithromycin maintenance treatment (Mulet et al. 2009).

Similarly, in a model of theoretically optimized pharmacokinetic/pharmacodynamic (PK/PD) parameters of ciprofloxacin to treat flow cell biofilms formed by hypermutable strains, deficient in *mutS*, this antibiotic, which was one of the most active antibiotics on biofilms according to previous works (Moskowitz et al. 2004), led to the selection and amplification of resistant mutants (Macià et al. 2011). Particularly relevant was the demonstration that mutational mechanisms played a major role in biofilm antibiotic resistance and that theoretically optimized PK/PD parameters failed to suppress resistance development. The results from this work supported the hypothesis that the increased antibiotic tolerance (physical, physiological and adaptive), driven by the special biofilm microenvironment, may raise the effective mutant preventive concentration (MPC) and favors gradual mutational resistance development, especially in mutator strains. Accordingly, overexpression of MexCD-OprJ or MexEF-OprN was the primary cause of ciprofloxacin resistance development in biofilms. Importantly, it was also demonstrated for the first time that mutator populations were dramatically amplified under antibiotic treatment by co-selection with resistance mutations in *P. aeruginosa* biofilms. In addition, the results highlighted the need to adapt the classical PK/PD target values to the biofilm mode of growth, in order to optimize the therapeutic management of chronic infections (Macià et al. 2011).

More recently, with the same aim of optimizing PK/PD strategies, the impact of ciprofloxacin and meropenem as monotherapy and in combination was evaluated on hypermutable strains using the dynamic in vitro CDC biofilm reactor (CBR) (Bilal et al. 2020). Concentration-time profiles attainable in epithelial lining fluid (ELF) following FDA-approved doses were simulated in the CBR. Overall, all monotherapies failed and combination treatments demonstrated synergistic bacterial killing and resistance suppression in hypermutable strains (Bilal et al. 2020).

In an analogous study, different dosage regimens of meropenem (standard and in continuous infusion) and tobramycin, as monotherapies and in combination against hypermutable carbapenem-resistant *P. aeruginosa* were studied (Bilal et al. 2019). In accordance with the work by (Bilal et al. 2020), monotherapy of meropenem and tobramycin were ineffective against planktonic and biofilm bacteria, while the combination treatment in continuous infusion exhibited enhanced bacterial killing and resistance suppression of carbapenem-resistant hypermutable *P. aeruginosa*. The results from these works emphasize the importance of using PK/PD optimized combinations of antibiotics when treating hypermutable *P. aeruginosa* biofilm-related infections (Bilal et al. 2020, 2019).

The role of mutational resistance has been revealed as a key mechanism for antibiotic resistance in biofilms. In a recent study, *P. aeruginosa* mutants showing diverse resistance mechanisms, such as β -lactamase or efflux pumps hyperexpression, were studied in biofilms (Rojo-Molinero et al. 2019). As expected, biofilms formed by AmpC (*dacB*) and MexAB-OprM (*mexR*) hyperproducing mutants showed enhanced β -lactam (cefepime) resistance (Rojo-Molinero et al. 2019). Resistant mutants (*dacB*) were selected and amplified in the competition with the wild type under cefepime treatment (Rojo-Molinero et al. 2019). Under the pressure of antibiotics, resistant mutants were also selected and amplified in biofilms. Interestingly, in mixed biofilms, resistant mutants shielded susceptible populations from antibiotic treatment (Rojo-Molinero et al. 2019). This finding could help to decipher the role of the frequent phenomenon of multi-strain/species in biofilms (Ciofu et al. 2012) and to determine why susceptible variants are not effortlessly eradicated from CF patients despite long-term intensive antimicrobial treatments (Rojo-Molinero et al. 2019).

The impact of the resistance mechanisms on biofilm community was also studied in preceding studies. In a work by Mulet et al. (2011) it was demonstrated that protective resistance mechanisms are different in biofilm vs planktonic growth. As it is well known, the most relevant *P. aeruginosa* resistance mechanisms include the overexpression of the chromosomal β -lactamase AmpC, the inactivation of the carbapenem porin OprD or the overexpression of different efflux pumps encoded in its genome (Livermore 2002; Poole 2004). Unfortunately, the combinations of these resistance pathways are often cumulative or synergistic, frequently driving to multidrug resistance. However, one of these mechanisms, the overexpression of the MexCD-OprJ efflux pump (caused by inactivation of its negative regulator NfxB), collaterally yields a notable hypersusceptibility to other relevant antipseudomonal agents, including most β -lactams and aminoglycosides (Gotoh et al. 1998). The key to this is that overexpression of the MexCD-OprJ efflux pump causes major changes in the cell envelope physiology, impairing the backbone of *P. aeruginosa* intrinsic resistance, including the major constitutive (MexAB-OprM) and inducible (MexXY-OprM) efflux pumps and the inducible AmpC β -lactamase. In addition, it also impaired the constitutive AmpC overexpression through a dramatic decrease in periplasmic-lactamase activity, produced by an abnormal permeation of AmpC out of the cell. Interestingly, although non-protective on planktonic cells, this permeation of AmpC into the matrix resulted in a protective mechanism for biofilm

communities against β -lactams. Therefore, in accordance with other works previously mentioned, hyperexpression of MexCD-OprJ efflux pump by *nfxB* mutants is a resistance mechanism that has been found to be beneficial and protective in biofilms (Mulet et al. 2009, 2011; Macià et al. 2011).

Similar findings have been confirmed in other bacterial species like *Acinetobacter baumannii* where, by using experimental evolution experiments, it was demonstrated that antibiotic resistance mechanisms were dependent upon environmental structure and bacterial lifestyle (Santos-Lopez et al. 2019). Similarly, in evolution experiments with *A. baumannii* and *P. aeruginosa* exposed to increasing concentrations of tobramycin in planktonic and biofilm environments, both species acquired antibiotic resistance-associated mutations that were more prevalent in the biofilm lifestyle than in planktonic cells (Scribner et al. 2020).

The development of mutational resistance has been demonstrated for almost all antibiotic classes in the chronic respiratory infection context. For example, in addition to the selection of mutants hyperexpressing MexXY-OprM, high-level aminoglycoside resistance driven by mutations in *fusA1/fusA2* has been documented in the CF setting (López-Causapé et al. 2017, 2018). Similarly, the PhoPQ regulatory system, PmrB, and ParS/ParR have been identified as hot spots of mutation that promote polymyxin resistance of *P. aeruginosa* isolated from colistin-treated CF patients (Gutu et al. 2013; Moskowitz et al. 2012; Greipel et al. 2016).

In summary, mutation-driven resistance has been shown to be a key factor in the development of resistance to antibiotics in biofilms. As a whole, the tolerance processes, which precede and support the development of classical resistance, as well as the biofilm microenvironment, which enhances mutagenesis and genomic and phenotypic diversification, are convergent forces that promote the development of mutational resistance. Figure 1 schematically illustrates this sequential process.

3.2 Horizontal Gene Transfer

In general, horizontal gene transfer, either by conjugation, transformation, or phage transduction mechanisms, is a principal source of evolution.

Within a biofilm, horizontal transfer of resistance-conferring genes between bacterial cells has been reported as being 700 times more efficient than among free-living, planktonic bacterial cells (Flemming et al. 2016).

Biofilms are ideally suited to the exchange of genetic material of various origins since conditions, such as high cell density and proximity, as well as increased genetic competence and accumulation of genetic elements are provided in their microenvironment (Flemming et al. 2016; Molin and Tolker-Nielsen 2003). Indeed, the conjugation mechanism itself may stimulate biofilm development (Madsen et al. 2012). Likewise, transformation seems to be part of a biofilm-related life cycle and both of these gene-transfer mechanisms may be auto-catalytically promoted in biofilms (Madsen et al. 2012).

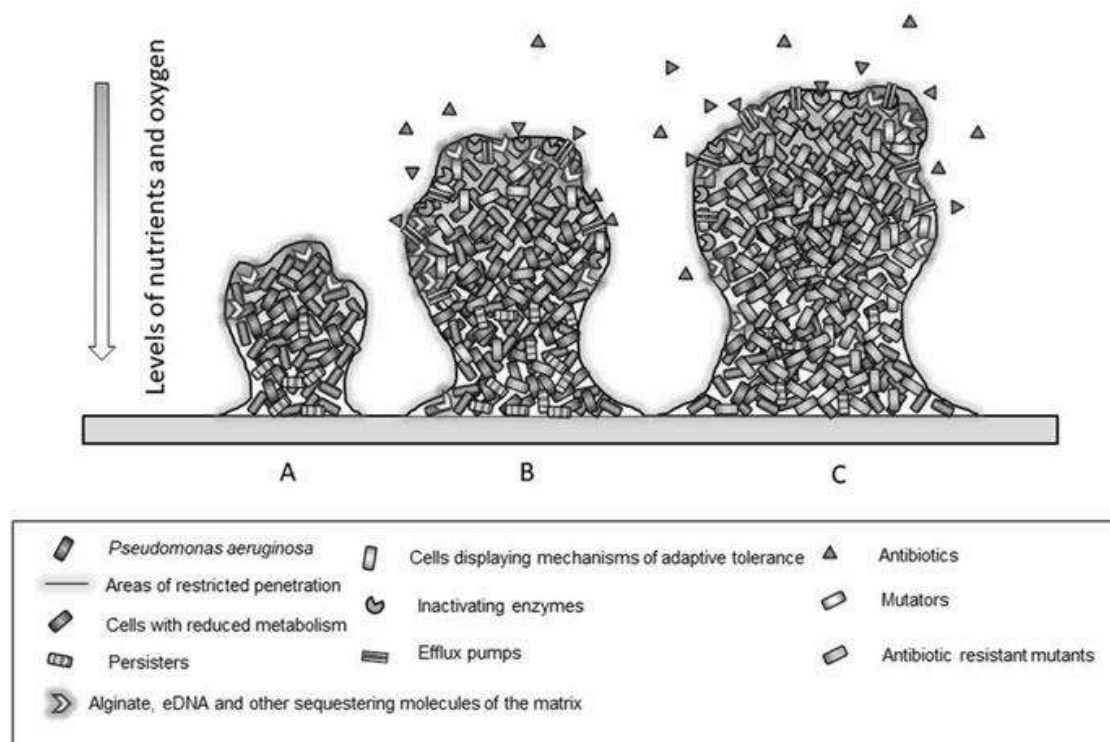


Fig. 1 Graphic representation of the sequential process of antibiotic resistance development in biofilm. (a) Innate tolerance of biofilms represented by physical (restricted penetration, sequestering molecules), physiological (gradients of oxygen and nutrients, reduced metabolism) and *persisters* phenomena. (b) Addition of adaptive tolerance represented by cells displaying mechanisms such as hyperexpression of inactivating enzymes and/or efflux pumps. Presence of mutators. (c) Addition of antibiotic conventional resistance mechanisms represented by the selection and amplification of antibiotic-resistant mutants

Moreover, it has been shown that biofilms facilitate horizontal gene transfer and plasmids induce biofilm formation (Ghigo 2001). Plasmid transfer has been proven to occur at a higher frequency in biofilm cultures of different bacterial species (Kouzeli et al. 2015; Savage et al. 2013; Hennequin et al. 2012; Tanner et al. 2017).

Table 1 summarizes the mechanisms of antibiotic resistance described in biofilms.

3.3 Conclusion and Future Perspectives

Biofilms are hotspots for the development of antibiotic resistance due to the intrinsic phenotypic tolerance linked to the mutagenic microenvironment that helps emergence, selection and amplification of mutational resistance, together with the proficiency in transferring resistance genes.

In recent years, many studies have investigated the different mechanisms underlying antibiotic resistance in biofilms; however, there are still important knowledge

Table 1 Mechanisms of biofilm antibiotic resistance

Antibiotics	Tolerance			Acquired resistance	
	Physical tolerance	Physiological tolerance	Adaptive tolerance	Mutational resistance	Horizontal gene transfer
β -lactams	• Restricted penetration	• Low metabolic activity (Walters et al. 2003) • <i>Persisters</i> (Lewis 2008; Lewis 2010) • Non-specific upregulation of efflux pumps (MexAB-oprM) (Liao et al. 2013; Poole 2014)	• Induction of AmpC β-lactamase (Giwercman et al. 1991; Giwercman et al. 1992; Bagge et al. 2004b) • Repression of OprD (Livermore 2002; Poole 2004)	• Mutants overexpressing AmpC (<i>dacB</i>) (Rojo-Molinero et al. 2019) • Mutants overexpressing MexAB-OprM (<i>mexR</i>) (Rojo-Molinero et al. 2019) • Mutations in OprD (Bilal et al. 2019, 2020)	• bla_{NDM-1} plasmids (Tanner et al. 2017) • conjugative plasmid carrying bla(CTX-M-15), bla(OXA-1) and aac(6')-Ib-cr genes (Hennequin et al. 2012)
Fluoroquinolones	• No effect	• Low metabolic activity (Walters et al. 2003; Bernier et al. 2013) • Anaerobic conditions (Jensen et al. 2014) • Non-specific upregulation of efflux pumps (MexCD-OprJ, MexEF-OprN) (Whiteley et al. 2001; Liao et al. 2013; Poole 2014) • <i>Persisters</i> (Lewis 2008; Lewis 2010)	• Upregulation of efflux pumps (MexCD-OprJ, MexEF-OprN) (Poole 2014)	• Mutants overexpressing MexEF-OprN/MexCD-OprJ (Macià et al. 2011) • Mutations in <i>GyrA</i>/<i>GyrB</i> (Macià et al. 2011)	
Aminoglycosides	• Restricted penetration (binding alginate, eDNA) (Tseng et al. 2013; Chiang et al. 2013; Cao et al. 2016; Mulcahy et al. 2008)	• Low metabolic activity (Walters et al. 2003) • Anaerobic conditions (Walters et al. 2003) • <i>Persisters</i> (Lewis 2010)	• Upregulation of efflux pumps (MexXY-OprM) (Poole 2014)	• Mutants overexpressing • MexXY-OprM, <i>fusA1</i>/<i>fusA2</i> mutants (López-Causapé et al. 2017, 2018)	

		• Non-specific upregulation of efflux pumps (MexXY-OprM) (Liao et al. 2013; Zhang and Mah 2008; Poole 2014)			
Colistin	• Restricted penetration (binding alginate, eDNA) (Pamp et al. 2008a)		• Upregulation of efflux pumps (MexAB-OprM) (Pamp et al. 2008a) • Upregulation of <i>pmr/arn</i> genes and LPS modification (Mulcahy et al. 2008) • Upregulation of efflux pumps (MexCD-OprJ)	• PhoPQ (Gutu et al. 2013), PmrAB (Moskowitz et al. 2012), and ParRS mutants (Greipel et al. 2016)	
Azithromycin			• Upregulation of efflux pumps (MexCD-OprJ)	• Mutants overexpressing MexCD-OprJ (Mulet et al. 2009)	

gaps. A better understanding of these molecular mechanisms could lead to improvements in the effective treatment of biofilm-related infections.

Considering the multifactorial nature of antibiotic resistance in biofilms, strategies adopted to overcome resistance should take into account the different systems acting together and efficiently combine different strategies to treat biofilm-related infections. For instance, the use of quorum sensing inhibitors to prevent and/or disrupt biofilms (Jakobsen et al. 2013), the use of SDS, EDTA, chlorhexidine or antibiotics like colistin to activate metabolically inactive cells (Pamp et al. 2008b), or restocking lacking metabolites and electron acceptors to revert tolerance to susceptibility (Crabbé et al. 2019), hyperbaric oxygen treatment (HBOT) to enhance antibiotic activity (Gade et al. 2018; Kolpen et al. 2016; Lerche et al. 2017), treatment with eDNases (Yu et al. 2015) and/or oligo G to attack the matrix (Hengzhuang et al. 2016), use of efflux pumps inhibitors (EPIs) directed to the adaptive resistance (Kvist et al. 2008), use of antioxidants like N-Acetylcysteine to target hypermutation, SOS, and oxidative stress (Skov et al. 2015), or improving therapeutic antibiotic strategies, as well as PK/PD parameters, to overwhelm mutation selection like combination of antibiotics (Bilal et al. 2019, 2020; Jakobsen et al. 2013; Macià et al. 2006; Plasencia et al. 2007), innovative sequential regimens (Rojo-Molinero et al. 2016), or topical administration (Krajewski et al. 2014; Heijerman et al. 2009). Progress in new alternative therapeutic approaches like formulation of antibiotics in nanoparticles (Pelgrift and Friedman 2013), novel anti-biofilm compounds, bacteriophage therapy (Pires et al. 2017), CRISPR gene editing technologies and photodynamic therapies is necessary. In addition, an important effort on transferring all these treatment options into real and practical therapeutic guidelines for the treatment of biofilm-related infections is urgently needed.

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