

Helcococcus kunzii methyltransferase Erm(47) responsible for MLSB resistance is induced by diverse ribosome-targeting antibiotics

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4	<i>Helcococcus kunzii</i> MLS _B resistance methyltransferase $erm(47)$ is induced by
5	diverse ribosome-targeting antibiotics
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27	Running title: Erm(47) is induced by multiple drug classes
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32 Abstract

33

34 Objectives: To determine the mechanism of induction of erm(47) and its atypical expression in the 35 Gram-positive opportunistic pathogen, Helcococcus kunzii, where it confers resistance to a subset of 36 clinically important macrolide, lincosamide and streptogramin B (MLS_B) antibiotics. 37 Methods: The resistant H. kunzii clinical isolate UCN99 was challenged with subinhibitory 38 concentrations of a wide range of ribosome-targeting drugs. The methylation status of the H. kunzii 39 ribosomal RNA at the MLS_B binding site was then determined using a mass spectrometry approach, 40 and was correlated with any increase in resistance to the drugs. 41 Results: The H. kunzii erm(47) gene encodes a monomethyltransferase. Expression is induced by 42 sub-inhibitory concentrations of the macrolide erythromycin, as is common for many erm genes, 43 and surprisingly also by 16-membered macrolide, lincosamide, streptogramin, ketolide, 44 chloramphenicol and linezolid antibiotics, all of which target the 50S ribosomal subunit. No 45 induction was detected with spectinomycin, which targets the 30S subunit. 46 **Conclusions:** The structure of the erm(47) leader sequence functions as a hair-trigger for the 47 induction mechanism that expresses resistance. Consequently, translation of the erm(47) mRNA is 48 tripped by MLS_B compounds and also by drugs that target the 50S ribosomal subunit outside the 49 MLS_B site. Expression of erm(47) thus extends previous assumptions about how erm genes can

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be induced.

52 53 Introduction

54	Infection with opportunistic bacterial pathogens presents a serious threat to immunocomprised
55	individuals. ¹ One such pathogen, <i>Helcoccocus kunzii</i> , is a facultatively anaerobic Gram-positive
56	coccus that can be found as an integral part of the skin microbiota of healthy individuals. ² This
57	species is now being increasingly detected in skin and soft tissue infections, such as diabetic foot
58	ulcers, ³ often in mixed cultures with other Gram-positive cocci. <i>H. kunzii</i> is generally intrinsically
59	susceptible to many antibiotics, although a disturbing increase in the incidence of resistance to
60	MLS_B drugs and to other clinically effective classes of antibiotics has been observed. ⁴ Recently, <i>H</i> .
61	kunzii strain UCN99 was shown to have acquired a 115-kb island within its chromosome that
62	encodes a range of antibiotic resistance determinants. ⁵ These include the previously uncharacterized
63	gene $erm(47)$, which confers resistance to a range of MLS _B drugs. ⁵
64	Phylogenetically, the <i>erm</i> (47) gene belongs to the large family of <i>erm</i> genes that are found in
65	diverse pathogenic and drug-producing bacteria. ^{6,7} Each <i>erm</i> gene encodes a methyltransferase that
66	specifically targets the N^6 -position of nucleotide A2058 in 23S rRNA (<i>Escherichia coli</i>
67	numbering), ⁸ which becomes modified by addition of either one or two methyl groups. ⁷ Type I Erm
68	monomethyltransferases add a single methyl group to confer high resistance to lincosamides, low to
69	moderate resistance to macrolide and streptogramin B antibiotics, ⁹ and no appreciable resistance to
70	ketolides such as telithromycin ¹⁰ that are derivatives of the macrolide erythromycin. ¹¹ Addition of
71	two methyl groups by type II Erm dimethyltransferases confers high resistance to all MLS_B
72	antibiotics ^{6,7} and also to ketolides. ¹² Consistent with these resistance phenotypes, Erm
73	monomethytransferases are generally found in drug-producing actinobacterial species,9 whereas
74	pathogenic bacteria generally acquire the broader range of resistance conferred by Erm
75	dimethyltransferases. ^{6,7} However, exceptions do exist and <i>erm</i> (42) found in pathogenic
76	Pasteurellaceae species has been shown to be a monomethyltransferase. ¹³

77 The transfer of additional methyl groups to the rRNA has a measurable fitness cost for the bacterial cell, and thus expression of *erm* genes is often shut down in the absence of drugs.¹⁴ 78 79 Expression of *erm* can then be activated upon detection of a drug for which the resistance 80 mechanism is required. Such induction is generally specified by a narrow range of drugs. For 81 instance, the dimethyltransferase ErmC is induced by the macrolide erythromycin, which has a 14-82 membered lactone ring, but is not induced by 16-membered ring macrolides, lincosamides or streptogramin B drugs¹⁵ despite the ability of ErmC to confer resistance to all of these compounds.⁷ 83 84 Furthermore, alteration of the erythromycin structure by removing its cladinose sugar results in loss of induction.^{16, 17} This latter point has been central in the development of the ketolide derivatives of 85 erythromycin where the cladinose moiety has been substituted with a keto group,¹⁸ enabling 86 ketolides to exert their inhibitory effects without tripping expression of MLS_B resistance.^{11, 19, 20} 87 88 Other structurally distinct classes of drugs such as chloramphenicol and linezolid bind at ribosomal sites that overlap those of the MLS_B antibiotics,^{21, 22} but despite this, none of has previously been 89 90 associated with induction of erm-mediated resistance.

91 Growth studies of *H. kunzii* strain UCN99 showed that *erm*(47) confers resistance to a range of MLS_B antibiotics and that this phenotype is transferable to other bacterial species.⁵ In the present 92 93 study, we investigate the mechanism of erm(47) induction and determine whether the resultant 94 rRNA modification falls into the type I or type II group of methyltransferases. We have applied 95 Matrix Assisted Laser Desorption/Ionization Time-of-Flight (MALDI-TOF) mass spectrometry to 96 determine the methylation status of *H. kunzii* rRNA after being challenged with a range of clinically 97 relevant drugs that target the bacterial ribosome. We show that H. kunzii erm(47) is an inducible 98 monomethyltransferase that contravenes many of the previous assumptions about how *erm* genes 99 are induced. Although, as might have been expected, full induction is obtained in the presence of 100 sub-inhibitory amounts of erythromycin, we show that erm(47) expression is also induced by a

- 101 range of compounds that include the 16-membered macrolide spiramycin, the lincosamide
- 102 lincomycin, the type-B streptogramin quinupristin, the ketolide telithromycin, as well as the non-
- 103 MLS_B drugs chloramphenicol and linezolid.
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- 105

106 Materials and Methods

107

108 Bacterial strains and growth conditions

- 109 The susceptible strain *H. kunzii* ATCC51366 and the resistant strain UCN99 containing *erm*(47)
- 110 were grown at 37 °C in cation-adjusted Mueller-Hinton broth (CA-MHB) supplemented with 5%
- 111 lysed horse blood and 20 mg/L nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide.⁵ Minimal inhibitory
- 112 concentrations (MICs) of the antibiotics listed below were determined by the broth microdilution
- 113 method according to EUCAST guidelines (http://www.eucast.org/). The UCN99 strain was grown
- 114 with one-fourth the MICs of erythromycin (64 mg/L), spiramycin (64 mg/L), lincomycin (64
- 115 mg/L), telithromycin (2 mg/L), dalfopristin/quinupristin (0.03 mg/L), chloramphenicol (1 mg/L),
- 116 linezolid (0.25 mg/L) or spectinomycin (2 mg/L) to test the effects of these drugs on induction of

117 the erm(47) gene.

118

119 **RNA** purification

H. kunzii cells were grown to late log phase in 50 mL medium and were harvested by centrifugation at 10000 g for 20 min. Cells were washed by twice resuspending in 100 mL buffer A (50 mM Tris-Cl pH 7.2, 10 mM MgCl₂, 100 mM NH₄Cl) and pelleted by centrifugation. Cells were lysed by sonication at 4 °C in 10 mL buffer A. Cell debris containing the chromosomal DNA was removed by centrifugation at 15000 g for 10 min. and the supernatent was extracted with phenol/chloroform to remove proteins. Cellular RNA was recovered by ethanol precipitation, and was redissolved in 100 μL H₂O.

127

128 MALDI mass spectrometry analysis of rRNAs

129 The 23S rRNA region around A2058 was isolated using a hybridization method.^{23, 24} A mixture of

130 150 pmol of *H. kunzii* rRNA and 500 pmol of an oligodeoxynucleotide complementary to the

131	nucleotide sequence G2032-G2084 (Fig. 1A) was heated for 5 min at 90 °C in 100 µl of 50 mM
132	Tris.Cl pH 7.5 followed by slow cooling to 37 °C. The mixture was incubated for a further 60 min
133	at 37 °C with 0.5 μ g RNase A, and nuclease digestion was stopped by extracting with
134	phenol/chloroform. The RNA-DNA hybrid was recovered by ethanol precipitation and run on a
135	denaturing 13% polyacrylamide gel to release the rRNA fragment that had been protected from
136	RNase A digestion. The rRNA fragment of approximately 57 nucleotides ran slightly slower on the
137	gel than its complementary DNA oligonucleotide, and was excised and extracted.
138	RNA aliquots of 2.5 pmol in 1 μ L were mixed with 0.5 μ L 3-hydroxypicolinic acid (0.5 M in
139	50% acetonitrile) and digested in a total volume of 3 μ L with either RNase A or RNase T1 (Sigma-
140	Aldrich) for 3 h at 37 °C. The resultant oligonucleotides were analysed in positive ion mode by
141	MALDI mass spectrometry as previously described. ^{23, 24}
142	

143 Secondary structure calculations erm(47) mRNA stability

144 Models for RNA folding based on minimum free energy structures were predicted using publically 145 assessible online tools²⁵ and included mfold (http://www.bioinfo.rpi.edu/applications/mfold/). The 146 free energies (ΔG) of structures were estimated from the stacking interaction contributions of 147 different RNA basepairs determined experimentally at 25 °C.²⁶ 148 **Results**

149

150 *Resistance phenotypes*

The MICs of a range of drugs targeting the ribosomal 50S subunit were determined for the susceptible and resistant *H. kunzii* strains (Table 1). The UCN99 strain exhibited appreciably higher resistance to the macrolides erythromycin and spiramycin and to the lincosamide lincomycin. No resistance was conferred to the ketolide telithromycin, the streptogramin A/B combination of dalfopristin/quinupristin, chloramphenicol nor to the oxazolidinone linezolid. As expected, there was no resistance to the 30S subunit-targeting drug spectinomycin (Table 1).

157

158 *Erm*(47) is a monomethyltransferase

159 The MALDI mass spectrometry approach used here measures the masses of RNA oligonucleotides

160 to within 0.2 Da.²⁷ Thus the addition of one methyl group (plus 14 Da) or two methyl groups (plus

161 28 Da) is readily detected in rRNA fragments of known sequence. After RNase T1 digestion of

162 rRNA from the susceptible strain, nucleotide A2058 of the macrolide/lincosamide binding site (in

bold, Fig. 1A) resides in the fragment AAAGp with a mass/charge (m/z) of 1351 (Fig. 1B).

164 Digestion of the rRNA region with RNase A yields a larger fragment of GGAAAGACp (m/z 2675) 165 containing this nucleotide (Fig. 1C).

166 Sub-inhibitory amounts of erythromycin produced no change in the rRNA of the susceptible

167 ATCC51366 strain (Fig. 2A), as would be predicted for a strain lacking resistance determinants.

168 Equivalent treatment of the resistant UCN99 strain with erythromycin (addition of one-fourth MIC,

169 Table 1) caused a shift in the AAAGp fragment from m/z 1351 to m/z 1365 (Fig. 2C),

170 corresponding to the addition of a single methyl group. No peak was detected at m/z 1379 under

171 these (or any other) drug conditions, showing that no dimethylation of A2058 takes place and that

172 Erm(47) is exclusively a monomethyltransferase. Under noninducing condition, a minor amount of

A2058 monomethylation was observed (Fig. 2B), indicating that expression of *erm*(47) in *H. kunzii*is not completely shut down in the absence of drug.

175

176 Induction by other drugs

- 177 Other drugs that target the 50S ribosomal subunit were tested for their ability to induce *erm*(47)
- 178 expression. After establishing the MICs for telithromycin, lincomycin, spiramycin,
- 179 dalfopristin/quinupristin, chloramphenicol and linezolid, one-fourth of the inhibitory concentrations
- added to cell cultures (Table 1). Telithromycin (Fig. 2D), lincomycin (Fig. 2E) and spiramycin
- 181 induced *erm*(47) to a level that results in full monomethylation of nucleotide A2058. Lower, but
- 182 nevertheless significant, levels of *erm*(47) expression were induced by chloramphenicol (Fig. 2F),
- 183 the streptogramin A/B pair, dalfopristin/ quinupristin (Fig. 2G), and linezolid (Fig. 2H).
- 184 Comparable control studies were carried out with the 30S ribosomal subunit drug,
- 185 spectinomycin. Methylation profiles remained identical to those from cells with no drug (Fig. 2B),
- 186 showing that spectinomycin was not an inducer of *erm*(47).

188 **Discussion**

189 We show here that erm(47) encodes a methyltransferase that adds a single methyl group to 23S 190 nucleotide A2058 of *H. kunzii*. This rRNA modification confers high resistance to lincosamide antibiotics⁹ and moderate to high macrolide resistance, but no appreciable resistance to ketolides 191 such as telithromycin.¹⁰ Although the resistance observed here to the 16-membered ring macrolide 192 193 spiramycin is somewhat higher than might have been expected, the resistance phenotype conferred by Erm(47) (Table 1) otherwise matches well with that seen for other Erm monomethyltransferases 194 in a wide range of bacteria.^{6,7} Methylation of rRNA by Erm variants, and ensuing effects on the 195 translational machinery, incur a measurable cost to the host bacterium,¹⁴ and thus expression of 196 197 these enzymes is often shut down in the absence of drug. When antibiotic appears in the 198 environment and the resistance mechanism is needed, expression of *erm* can then be rapidly 199 induced at the translational level.²⁸

The premise of such an induction mechanism is that it confers a selective advantage to the 200 bacterium by preventing nonproductive gene expression in the absence of drug while facilitating 201 rapid implementation of resistance upon drug detection.²⁹ Full induction of erm(47) is seen here 202 with erythromycin and lincosamine (Fig. 2) conferring high level resistance to these drugs (Table 203 1). Expression of *erm* is not normally initiated by 16-membered macrolides^{6,7} and although 204 205 induction of erm(47) by spiramycin was unexpected, the subsequent resistance conferred to this 206 macrolide does offer a clear functional advantage to H. kunzii (Table 1). In the case of the dalfopristin/quinupristin compounds, the streptogram B moiety quinupristin contacts nucleotide 207 A2058.^{21, 22} and conceivably promotes *erm*(47) induction. Here, the accompanying streptogramin A 208 209 component, dalfopristin, would act in synergy to aid quinupristin binding, and no resistance is 210 conferred to this drug combination despite monomethylation of the rRNA (Table 1). No induction 211 of erm(47) was seen with the 30S subunit-targeting drug spectinomycin, which is also consistent

with the view that drugs which bind to other ribosomal targets outside the MLS_B site do not act as inducers of *erm* genes.

However, the other 50S-targeting drugs chloramphenicol and linezolid bind outside the MLS_B site,^{21, 22} but nevertheless induce a significant degree of erm(47) expression. Neither chloramphenicol nor linezolid has previously been linked with *erm* induction, and the expression of *erm*(47) seen here offers no apparent advantage to the bacterial cell. These observations challenge the classic model for induction and prompts the question of how *erm*(47) differs from other inducible *erm* genes.

At a first glance, the erm(47) operon is organized in a manner similar to other inducible erm 220 genes, where translation occurs on a bicistronic mRNA together with an upstream leader 221 sequence.²⁸ As in the classic model for other *erm* operons, the erm(47) mRNA can fold into a 222 223 conformation (Fig. 3A), where the groundstate in the absence of antibiotic occludes the ribosome 224 binding site and the start codon of the methyltransferase cistron. In the absence of antibiotics, the inherent helicase activity of the translating ribosome³⁰ would disrupt the 1:2 helix to read through 225 226 the erm leader sequence and then dissociate from the mRNA after synthesizing the short leader 227 peptide. Here, the ribosomal binding site and first codon of the *erm*(47) cistron would remain inaccessible within the 3:4 helix. However, when an antibiotic such as erythromycin causes the 228 229 ribosome to stall on region 1 of the leader sequence, helix 1:2 would remain unraveled and enable mRNA refolding to expose the downstream start site where another ribosome would enter and 230 231 initiate methyltransferase synthesis (Fig. 3B).

The propensity of ribosomes to stall on the *erm* leader is determined by both the type of antibiotic and by the encoded sequence of the leader peptide. The macrolides erythromycin and azithromycin stall ribosomes on *E. coli*³¹ and *Staphylococcus aureus* mRNAs³² by a similar mechanism that is accentuated by specific tripeptide sequences such as Arg-Leu-Arg. This sequence is present in the erm(47) leader (Fig. 3) and several other *erm* leader sequences.³³ Stalling by telithromycin is also promoted at Arg-X-Arg triplets,³¹ consistent with *erm*(47) induction by this drug. Furthermore, the *erm*(47) leader also contains runs of serine codons that have been shown to augment ribosome stalling in the presence of chloramphenicol or linezolid.³⁴ Pausing of the ribosome in at any of these sites in the leader could lead to rearrangement of the mRNA secondary structure as described above (Fig. 3B) and result in *erm*(47) expression.

242 Also particular to the erm(47) operon is the small but reproducible amount of erm(47) expression 243 seen in drug-free cells (Fig. 2B). Generally in erm mRNAs, the overall stability of the occluded 244 structure in the absence of drugs (Fig. 3A) has to be greater than that an alternative structure 245 facilitated by ribosome stalling. However, free energy estimates suggest that the groundstate folding 246 of the *erm*(47) operon might favor a conformation with helix 2:3 extending into a paired structure 247 between region 1 and region 4 (Fig. 3C). Although such a configuration would occlude the 248 initiation site of the erm(47) methyltransferase, each translational event on the leader sequence 249 would briefly expose the downstream initiation site to leave a narrow window for expression of 250 erm(47) even in the absence of drug.

A mechanism favoring the Fig. 3C structure, would explain the minor amount of *erm*(47) 251 252 expression in drug-free cells. Furthermore, this leakiness could conceivably be exacerbated by 253 drugs such as chloramphenicol and linezolid that do not normally induce erm genes but which, in the sub-inhibitory amounts used here, clearly provoke *erm*(47) expression. Although the mechanism 254 255 for this remains unclear, the lack of induction by the 30S subunit inhibitor spectinomycin points 256 towards a 50S-specific effect, and might be linked to the proximity of the chloramphenicol and 257 linezolid binding sites to that of the MLS_B compounds. Taking these points together, we conclude 258 that the *erm*(47) operon is activated by a much wider range of drugs than previously have been 259 associated with the induction of erm-encoded resistance.

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264	Transparency declarations						
265	Nothing to declare.						
266 267 268	References						
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352 Figure Legends

354 Figure 1 (A) Schematic of the 3'-half of *H. kunzii* 23S rRNA based on secondary structures at the 355 Gutell lab comparative RNA site (http://www.rna.icmb.utexas.edu). The sequence around the Erm methyltransferase target at nucleotide A2058 (bold line within the boxed area of the schematic) was 356 isolated for mass spectrometry analysis. The *E. coli* numbering system for rRNA nucleotides^{35, 36} is 357 358 used throughout. (B) MALDI mass spectrum of this rRNA sequence after digestion with RNase T1. 359 The target nucleotide A2058 resides in the tetranucleotide AAAGp at m/z 1351.2 prior to 360 methylation. (C) Mass spectrum of the same rRNA sequence after RNase A digestion, where A2058 361 is in the larger oligonucleotide GGAAAGACp at m/z 2675.4. The calculated singly protonated masses of the oligonucleotides (inserted tables) match the experimentally measured m/z values 362 363 (shown on the spectral peaks) to within 0.1 Da. 364 Figure 2 Enlargement of RNase T1 spectral region containing nucleotide 2058 (boxed on spectrum 365 366 in Fig. 1B). (A) RNA from the susceptible ATCC51366 strain without erm. Unmethylated A2058 367 is in the AAAGp fragment at m/z 1351; the neighboring fragment CUAGp at m/z 1304 remains 368 unchanged under all conditions and is shown for reference. (B) RNA prior to addition of antibiotic 369 from the resistance UCN99 strain containing erm(47). (C – H) The UCN99 strain after erm(47)370 induction with one-fourth the MICs of the antibiotics indicated. After induction with erythromycin, 371 lincosamine and telithromycin, the m/z 1351 peak is shifted to m/z 1365 indicating that nucleotide 372 A2058 has been modified with a single methyl group. No spectral peak was evident at m/z 1379 373 showing that no dimethylation of this nucleotide takes place. Chloramphenicol, 374 dalfopristin/quinupristin and linezolid also induce the expression of erm(47) to varying degrees. 375 Figure 3 Putative secondary structures of the *erm*(47) leader mRNA. (A) The classic ground-state 376 structure for inducible *erm* operons²⁸ in which the base-paired segments 1:2 and 3:4 are formed. In 377 378 this conformation, translation of the methyltransferase would be prevented due to sequestering of

379 the ribosome binding site (Shine-Dalgarno, in blue) and the initiation codon (green) within the 380 secondary structure formed by segments 3 and 4 (insert). (B) Drug-induced pausing of ribosomes 381 around the series of hydrophobic residues (Arg-Leu-Arg, bold) encoded in region 1 of the leader 382 sequence frees region 2 to form a stable helical structure with region 3. This in turn opens up the 383 Shine-Dalgarno and start codon sequences in region 4 enabling translation of the erm(47) 384 methyltransferase to be initiated. We note that the sequence at the 3'-end of *H. kunzii* 16S rRNA 385 restricts its interaction to the AGGU (blue) nucleotides of the Shine-Dalgarno regions whereas in 386 numerous other bacteria this interaction would be significantly more extensive and (for instance in 387 E. coli) include five additional nucleotides upstream of the leader cistron (boxed in blue). (C) An 388 alternative ground-state structure that also sequesters the translational start site of the *erm*(47) 389 cistron. Free energy (ΔG) estimations indicate that this structure is more favorable than that in panel 390 A. After drug-induced pausing of a ribosome in region 1, this structure requires no conformational 391 rearrangement of regions 2 and 3 in order to free the methyltransferase initiation site.

H kunzii stroins	Minimal inhibitory concentrations (mg/L)							
11. Kunzu strams	erythro- mycin	linco- mycin	telithro- mycin	spira- mycin	dalfopristin /quinupristin	chloram- phenicol	linezolid	spectino- mycin
ATCC 51366	1	2	2	4	0.25	4	1	8
UCN99 [<i>erm</i> (47)]	≥256	≥256	1	≥256	0.12	4	1	8

Table 1. MICs for the susceptible ATCC 51366 strain and the resistant UCN99 strain of *H. kunzii* harbouring *erm*(47) were determined by broth microdilution. The MIC values were used to establish growth conditions for the UCN99 strain, where one-fourth of the MIC for each drug was used to test for *erm*(47) induction.





FIG 1





