

Antimicrobial Heteroresistance: an Emerging Field in Need of Clarity

Omar M. El-Halfawy,^{a,b} Miguel A. Valvano^{a,c}

Centre for Human Immunology and Department of Microbiology and Immunology, University of Western Ontario, London, Ontario, Canada^a; Department of Pharmaceutical Microbiology, Faculty of Pharmacy, Alexandria University, Alexandria, Egypt^b; Centre for Infection and Immunity, Queen's University Belfast, Belfast, United Kingdom^c

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SUMMARY

“Heteroresistance” describes a phenomenon where subpopulations of seemingly isogenic bacteria exhibit a range of susceptibilities to a particular antibiotic. Unfortunately, a lack of standard methods to determine heteroresistance has led to inappropriate use of this term. Heteroresistance has been recognized since at least 1947 and occurs in Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria. Its clinical relevance may be considerable, since more resistant subpopulations may be selected during antimicrobial therapy. However, the use of nonstandard methods to define heteroresistance, which are costly and involve considerable labor and resources, precludes evaluating the clinical magnitude and severity of this phenomenon. We review the available literature on antibiotic heteroresistance and propose recommendations for definitions and determination criteria for heteroresistant bacteria. This will help in assessing the global clinical impact of heteroresistance and developing uniform guidelines for improved therapeutic outcomes.

INTRODUCTION

Infections by multidrug-resistant bacteria impose a serious encumbrance worldwide on societies and economies and account for increasing global morbidity and mortality (1). The occurrence of various responses to antibiotics from bacterial cells within the same population, known as heteroresistance, is a poorly characterized phenomenon that further complicates the study of antibiotic resistance, and its clinical relevance is uncertain. Heterogeneous antibiotic resistance was first described in 1947 for the

Gram-negative bacterium *Haemophilus influenzae* (2), and almost 20 years later for Gram-positive staphylococci (3), but the first reported use of the term “heteroresistance” occurred in 1970 (4). “Heterogeneous resistance,” “population-wide variation of resistance,” and “heterogeneity of response to antibiotics” are also used to describe this phenomenon. The Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI), the British Society of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy (BSAC), and other international bodies develop clinical laboratory standards and recommendations for practices concerning antimicrobial resistance (5). Therefore, antimicrobial susceptibility testing methods, such as MIC determination and disc diffusion techniques, and standard criteria to define isolates as susceptible, resistant, or intermediately resistant to any antibiotic are generally agreed upon worldwide. In contrast, heteroresistance is poorly characterized, and consensus-based standards to define it are lacking.

In the literature, the term “heteroresistance” has been applied indiscriminately to describe not only population-wide variation in antibiotic resistance but also other observations, and methods to determine heteroresistance vary significantly among laborato-

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Address correspondence to Miguel A. Valvano, m.valvano@qub.ac.uk.

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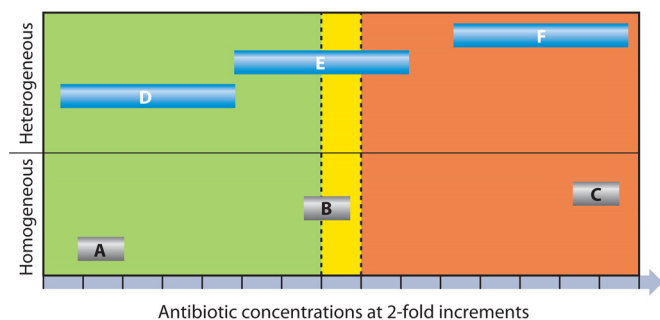


FIG 1 Heteroresistant versus homogeneous responses to antibiotics. Dotted lines represent breakpoints for resistance. Homogeneous bacterial cultures can be either susceptible (A), of intermediate susceptibility (B), or resistant (C) to an antibiotic according to traditional *in vitro* susceptibility testing. Heteroresistant bacteria may be any of the following. (D) Bacteria are completely susceptible to an antibiotic, whereby the different subpopulations respond to antibiotic concentrations extending below the breakpoints. This form is less likely to be detected and is probably the least clinically important (unless the least responsive subpopulations develop resistance to the antibiotic). (E) Bacteria exhibit the more classical form of heteroresistance, in which the majority of the bacterial population is susceptible to an antibiotic, with a highly resistant minority. Antibiotic treatment guided by the traditional susceptibility testing breakpoints would select for the resistant subpopulation, leading to therapeutic failure. (F) The entire bacterial population, including the least resistant subpopulations, is resistant to the antibiotic. Chemical communication of antibiotic resistance from the more resistant members of the population protecting less resistant bacteria is the major concern of such bacterial populations.

ries. Confusion regarding this phenomenon precludes establishing its clinical significance and implementing proper therapeutic interventions and guidelines. Therefore, in this review, we critically assess the published literature on heteroresistance, expose contradictions and variations in its definition, and recommend an operational definition and uniform criteria for assessment of heteroresistant bacteria.

MULTIPLE DEFINITIONS OF HETERORESISTANCE

Heteroresistance means that there are population-wide variable responses to antibiotics (6). Several reports, including the earliest studies describing the phenomenon, applied this definition without specifying a particular antibiotic concentration range (3, 4, 7, 8). In contrast, concentration ranges were indicated for heteroresistance in *Acinetobacter baumannii*, where subpopulations grew in 3 to 10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ colistin while the culture's MIC ranged from 0.25 to 2 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ (9). Others described heteroresistance when a subset of the microbial population was resistant to an antibiotic and the rest of the population was susceptible based on the concentration breakpoints of traditional *in vitro* susceptibility testing (10). This definition excludes cases where the bacterial culture comprises subpopulations with various levels of resistance but the entire population is either sensitive (Fig. 1D) or resistant (Fig. 1F) to the antibiotic.

Other definitions of heteroresistance contributed to misconceptions about the nature of the phenomenon. Some of them were based on single cutoff concentrations, which did not describe the variation in resistance among members of a bacterial population. For example, heteroresistance was defined by growth of *A. baumannii* colonies on plates containing 8 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ of colistin, with confirmation of a MIC of 8 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ by a subsequent broth microdilution method (11). Similarly, heterogeneously resistant staphy-

lococci were defined as any culture containing subpopulations at a frequency of 1 in 10^6 CFU/ml or higher, with a MIC of $>4 \mu\text{g/ml}$ for vancomycin or $\geq 16 \mu\text{g/ml}$ for teicoplanin (12), or simply with a MIC above those specified in the CLSI guidelines for breakpoints of vancomycin or teicoplanin (13). A similar definition was adopted by setting a cutoff diameter of 10 mm in disc diffusion assays, below which the strain was considered heteroresistant rather than merely resistant (14). Another approach defined heteroresistance as a high MIC of *Enterococcus faecium* against vancomycin ($>256 \mu\text{g/ml}$) by broth dilution but a low MIC (1.8 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) by Etest (15).

Other forms of heterogeneous bacterial behavior against antibiotics were reported as heteroresistance. Certain *Staphylococcus aureus* strains displayed methicillin resistance at high antibiotic concentrations (64 to 512 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) and susceptibility at low concentrations (2 to 16 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) (16). This phenomenon, termed “Eagle-type” resistance, was similar to the Eagle killing by penicillin described earlier, in which the bactericidal action of penicillin paradoxically decreased at high antibiotic concentrations (17). Similar patterns of bimodal growth in population analysis profiles were observed for *A. baumannii* with cefepime, where growth inhibition after an initial peak of growth at a low antibiotic concentration was followed by another peak of growth at a higher concentration (18). Certain *S. aureus* strains displayed “thermosensitive” heteroresistance, where cultures growing at high methicillin concentrations at 30°C lost this ability within 30 min after shifting of the growth temperature to 37°C (19). A temperature shift in the reverse direction caused an equally rapid expression of methicillin resistance (19).

Adding to the confusion, the term “heteroresistance” has been applied to describe infections with bacterial strains having different levels of resistance to an antibiotic. Amoxicillin-resistant and -susceptible *Helicobacter pylori* isolates (MICs of 2 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ and 0.06 $\mu\text{g/ml}$, respectively) were observed in different biopsy specimens from one patient, displaying what was described as “interniche” heteroresistance (20). More recently, pairs of *H. pylori* isolates obtained from the same patients had different levels of resistance to levofloxacin, metronidazole, and (in only one case) clarithromycin; the antibiotic-resistant strains were mostly derived from a preexisting sensitive strain rather than from infection with different strains of *H. pylori* having different levels of antibiotic resistance (21). Similarly, heteroresistance in *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* was defined as coexistence of antituberculosis drug-susceptible and -resistant bacteria in the same patient (22, 23). More recently, heteroresistance in *M. tuberculosis* was redefined as coexistence of populations with different mutations in a drug resistance locus within a sample of organisms (24). Therefore, heteroresistance does not have a uniformly consistent definition, making retrospective comparisons to assess its true clinical significance impossible.

MEASURING HETERORESISTANCE

Population Analysis Profiling

The population analysis profiling (PAP) method is considered the gold standard for determining heteroresistance. In this method, the bacterial population is subjected to a gradient of antibiotic concentrations (either on plates or in liquid medium), and bacterial growth at each of these concentrations is quantified. PAP is typically performed using the format of standard MIC determina-

tion, with 2-fold antibiotic increments, and by use of spread plate techniques for CFU counting (3, 4, 6, 8, 14, 16, 18, 19, 25–41). Counting of CFU by dropping smaller aliquots is as efficient as spread plate techniques (6, 42). Turbidimetric PAP assays are also performed using 2-fold antibiotic increments (6, 43) and antibiotic increments of >2-fold (2, 44).

Recently, heteroresistance was considered if the antibiotic concentration exhibiting the highest inhibitory effects was at least 8-fold higher than the highest noninhibitory concentration (6), which allowed comparisons of the isolate's behavior against different antibiotics. However, most studies lacked criteria to define homogeneous versus heterogeneous resistance. Lack of a standardized method to perform PAP, in particular the selection of antibiotic concentration increments, led to confounding observations. For example, several studies investigated the response to glycopeptide antibiotics by using PAP assays with narrow increments in antibiotic concentrations, such as 1- μ g/ml steps (9, 13, 45–65), and even as low as 0.1- μ g/ml steps (66). In these cases, a homogeneous strain could inaccurately be considered heteroresistant, and sometimes the same strain appeared to be homogeneous by one curve and heterogeneous by another (12).

A modified PAP assay comparing the area under the curve (PAP-AUC) of a given strain to that of a reference heteroresistant strain was used to determine *S. aureus* heteroresistance to vancomycin (67–81). PAP-AUC ratios between the test and control strains of <0.9, 0.9 to 1.3, and >1.3 were considered indicative of vancomycin-susceptible *S. aureus*, heterogeneous vancomycin-intermediate *S. aureus* (hVISA), and vancomycin-intermediate *S. aureus* (VISA), respectively (67, 72, 74, 76). Because this method relies on the vancomycin response of the *S. aureus* control strain, any instability in the antibiotic resistance of the control would cause significant changes in the results. The typical PAP method is time-consuming and labor-intensive and may not be suitable for clinical laboratories that screen hundreds of isolates for heteroresistance. A variation of PAP to screen clinical isolates for heteroresistance against glycopeptides uses plates containing a single concentration of either vancomycin or teicoplanin (56, 68–70, 75, 82–84). However, comparative studies indicated that this method is not reliable for detecting heteroresistance (83, 85).

Disc Diffusion and Etest Assays

Disc diffusion assays (3, 14, 18, 55, 86–92) and Etest strips have been used to detect heteroresistance as recommended for traditional *in vitro* susceptibility testing (6, 15, 18, 50, 63, 64, 66, 68, 71, 73, 76, 80, 86, 88–91, 93–101). Special Etest strips were developed for glycopeptide resistance detection (GRD Etest) (69, 74, 75, 81, 102). These are double-sided strips that contain vancomycin on one side and teicoplanin on the other. As with PAP, the lack of standard guidelines hampers detection of heteroresistance by use of Etest and disc diffusion assays. An obvious indication of heteroresistance is the appearance of distinct colonies growing within the clear zone of inhibition in the disc diffusion or Etest assay. However, many reports set cutoff concentrations or inhibition zone diameters to decide on the heterogeneity of the response of the bacterial population to antibiotics, as discussed before, but such cutoff values cannot sufficiently describe the population-wide behavior.

Additional Methods To Characterize Heteroresistance

Agar plates containing a linear gradient of antibiotic concentrations have been used to determine the antibiotic susceptibility of clinical isolates and to identify antibiotic-resistant cells within bacterial populations (103). Flow cytometry using a fluorescent penicillin derivative is another approach employed to assess heteroresistance in methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA) compared to isolates with known heteroresistance (104). Other methods to characterize heteroresistant bacteria have included bacterial regrowth at later time points in time-kill assays after an initial significant growth reduction (9, 40) and determination of increased MIC values of the same strain on prolonging the incubation time (27). Both methods allow time for proliferation of less abundant and more resistant members of the population. Also, uninterpretable and irreproducible MIC results in the form of “skip wells” (wells exhibiting no growth although growth still occurs at higher concentrations of the antibiotic) may suggest heteroresistance, as further confirmed by PAP for isolates of *Enterobacter cloacae* and *Enterobacter aerogenes* against polymyxin B (105).

HETERORESISTANCE IN DIFFERENT BACTERIAL SPECIES

Heteroresistance denotes the presence of subpopulations of bacterial cells with higher levels of antibiotic resistance than those of the rest of the population in the same culture. Individual subpopulations of more resistant bacteria are often isolated, but their stability differs. Typically, after 5 to 10 serial passages in antibiotic-free medium, some highly resistant subpopulations revert to the heterogeneous resistance phenotype displayed by the original population (3, 30, 40), whereas others retain their high-level resistance (6, 28). Most of the reported incidences of heteroresistance involve bactericidal antibiotics, including β -lactams, glycopeptides, antimicrobial peptides, fluoroquinolones, aminoglycosides, and the nitroimidazole antibiotic metronidazole, which acts on anaerobic bacteria (Tables 1 and 2). No systematic comparisons of the responses of heteroresistant bacteria to bacteriostatic versus bactericidal antibiotics have been reported, except for one study of *Burkholderia cenocepacia* (6) showing heteroresistance to different classes of bactericidal antibiotics and homogeneous responses to bacteriostatic antibiotics. Two studies reported incidences of heteroresistance against bacteriostatic antibiotics. One of them involved *S. aureus* strains heteroresistant to fusidic acid (45), but PAP was performed using a narrow range of antibiotic concentrations in small increments. The other study reported *Bordetella pertussis* strains being heteroresistant to erythromycin (88), appearing as discrete colonies in the clear zones of inhibition after 7 days of incubation in Etest and disc diffusion assays.

Heteroresistance in Gram-positive bacteria has been reported for *S. aureus* as well as for other staphylococci, enterococci, and *Clostridium difficile*. The earliest reports of heteroresistance in *S. aureus* were based on the response to methicillin (3, 4), but this extended to other β -lactams, which accounted for the majority of research on heteroresistance until the late 1990s (Table 1).

Heteroresistance to vancomycin and other glycopeptides was first detected in Japanese vancomycin-resistant *S. aureus* strains (13). This also initiated a trend of PAP testing with a narrow range of antibiotic concentrations in very small increments, which was used to determine the clinical relevance and spread of vancomycin resistance in MRSA infections. However, controversial findings, originating from similar time ranges and geographical distributions, indicated that “heterogeneity” in response to vancomycin is

TABLE I. Cases of heteroresistance in Gram-positive bacteria^a

Organism(s)	Antibiotic(s)	Method(s)	Comments	Reference(s)
<i>S. aureus</i> (MRSA isolates)	Methicillin	PAP by CFU counts, using 2-fold increments, and presence of colonies in the inhibition zone of disc diffusion tests	Cultures consisted of mixed populations; the majority of cells were sensitive, with a minority showing resistance.	3
<i>S. aureus</i>	Cephalexin, oxacillin	PAP by CFU counts, using 2-fold increments	The population comprised cells with differing levels of resistance.	4
<i>S. epidermidis</i> and <i>S. haemolyticus</i>	Cephalothin, methicillin, cephalixin	PAP by CFU counts, using 2-fold increments, and presence of colonies in the inhibition zone of disc diffusion tests	Decreasing proportion of resistant organisms with increasing antibiotic concentration. Improper criterion for heteroresistance in diffusion assay based on diameter.	14
<i>S. aureus</i>	Methicillin	PAP by CFU counts, using 2-fold increments	Only a minority of cells in a culture had significant resistance.	26
<i>S. epidermidis</i>	Nafcillin	PAP by CFU counts, using 2-fold increments, and MICs at 48 h being greater than those at 24 h	Susceptible cells represent the vast majority, with a very small number (1 in 10 ⁶ cells) of highly resistant cells.	27
<i>S. aureus</i>	Methicillin ("thermosensitive")	PAP by CFU counts, using 2-fold increments	Ability to grow in high concentrations of methicillin at 30°C but not at 37°C.	19
<i>S. epidermidis</i>	Methicillin	PAP by CFU counts	Resistance to high concentrations of methicillin (64–512 µg/ml) and susceptibility to low concentrations (2–16 µg/ml).	8, 30–34, 132
<i>S. pneumoniae</i>	Methicillin ("Eagle-type" resistance)	PAP by CFU counts, using 2-fold increments	Potential misidentification of heteroresistance.	16
<i>S. pneumoniae</i>	Methicillin, oxacillin	PAP		128
<i>S. pneumoniae</i>	Penicillin	Etest (complicated by zone of hemolysis) and PAP by CFU counts, using very small increments (0.1 µg/ml)		66
<i>S. aureus</i>	Oxacillin	PAP by CFU counts, using 2-fold increments		7
<i>S. aureus</i>	Cefazolin, methicillin	PAP by CFU counts, using 2-fold increments	Detection of heteroresistant MRSA with a low ceftazolin MIC; genetically distinct from 1980s hetero-MRSA.	37
<i>S. aureus</i>	Methicillin	Flow cytometry using Bocillin FL, with comparison to known heteroresistant MRSA strains as a reference	New method, has not been compared to other methods.	104
<i>S. aureus</i>	Methicillin, oxacillin	PAP and selection of high resistance by growing at subinhibitory concentration of oxacillin	Selection led to conversion from heteroresistant to homogeneously highly resistant.	129
<i>S. pneumoniae</i>	Penicillin	PAP by CFU counts		133
<i>S. aureus</i>	Ceftaroline	PAP by CFU counts	The frequency of resistant subpopulations was 1 in 10 ⁴ to 1 in 10 ⁵ .	160
<i>S. epidermidis</i>	Methicillin, vancomycin, teicoplanin	PAP by CFU counts, using 2-fold increments	Isolates tested were obtained from recurrent infections of dialysis patients.	46
<i>S. aureus</i>	Methicillin, vancomycin	PAP by CFU counts (comparison of spread plate technique to spotting of 10-µl samples)	Spotting reproduces the standard spread plate technique while saving plates and time.	42
<i>S. aureus</i>	Methicillin, vancomycin	PAP	Argued against a major role of resistant subpopulations in persistence or relapse in bacteremia.	51
<i>S. aureus</i>	Vancomycin	PAP using 1-µg/ml increments	The first report of using narrow increments for PAP was in 1997, using vancomycin.	13, 47, 48, 140
<i>S. aureus</i>	Vancomycin	PAP and disc diffusion assay to examine satellitism	Vancomycin heteroresistance is induced by β-lactams; sequential use of 2 antibiotics may facilitate the emergence of glycopeptide resistance.	87
<i>Enterococcus faecium</i>	Vancomycin	CFU counts on plates with 4 µg/ml vancomycin	The method is not reliable and may select for rather than detect heteroresistance.	82, 85
<i>S. aureus</i>	Vancomycin	Etests (growth in zone of inhibition)		93
Coagulase-negative staphylococci	Vancomycin	PAP by CFU counts (narrow increments)	In this multicenter study of methods, intra- and interlaboratory reproducibilities varied between methods, with the poorest performance seen with screening plates compared to Etest.	12, 49, 52, 62, 148
<i>S. aureus</i>	Vancomycin, teicoplanin	PAP by CFU counts (narrow increments)	Attempt to develop a new method that relies on comparison to a previously identified hVISA strain.	53
<i>S. aureus</i>	Vancomycin	Etest	Etest is more reliable and sensitive for detection of heteroresistance. Results suggest that the PAP method should be revised and standardized.	95, 100
<i>Staphylococcus</i> spp.	Vancomycin, teicoplanin	BHI agar screening method with 4 or 6 µg/ml antibiotic; PAP (narrow increments)		56
<i>S. aureus</i>	Vancomycin and teicoplanin	BHI agar plus 6 µg/ml vancomycin, MH agar plus 5 µg/ml vancomycin, and MH agar plus 5 µg/ml teicoplanin; Etest macromethod (using a 2 McFarland standard)		83
<i>Enterococcus faecium</i>	Vancomycin	MIC by broth dilution and Etest (colonies in inhibition zone)		15
<i>S. aureus</i>	Vancomycin	Modified PAP by CFU counts on BHI agar plus 0.25, 0.5, 1, 1.5, 2, 4, 6, and 8 µg/ml vancomycin, with calculation of the AUC		67
<i>S. capitis</i>	Vancomycin	PAP (1-µg/ml increments) and calculation of AUC test/AUC Mu3 ratios; Etest (colonies in inhibition zone); BHI agar plus 4 µg/ml vancomycin		68

<i>Enterococcus faecium</i>	Teicoplanin	Etest	GRD Etest strips, with one incorporated with nutrients to enhance growth of hGISA; BHI agar plus 6 µg/ml vancomycin; MH agar plus 5 µg/ml teicoplanin; PAP-AUC	97
				69
<i>S. aureus</i>	Glycopeptides	PAP by CFU counts, using 2-fold increments PAP-AUC; screening cascade, i.e., BHI agar plus 5 µg/ml teicoplanin and then MET for positive isolates	MET; PAP (narrow increments)	38
				70
	Vancomycin	Vancomycin but not telavancin (bactericidal lipoglycopeptide)	Telavancin was efficacious against infections caused by hVISA in a murine bacteremia model.	58
				64, 71, 73, 76, 161 72, 78, 79
	Vancomycin, glycopeptides	PAP by CFU counts compared to Mu3 (hVISA) and Mu50 (VISA)	Included a reported homogeneous strain, not just a heterogeneous one, as a control.	60
				61, 77 74
	Vancomycin	PAP-AUC; MET; GRD Etest; broth microdilution (MIC cutoff, ≥ 2 µg/ml); standard vancomycin Etest (MIC cutoff, ≥ 2 µg/ml); method comparison with PAP-AUC as the standard	The most cost-effective strategy was broth microdilution as a stand-alone assay or in combination with PAP-AUC. GRD Etest remained an alternative, but a single cutoff value was used in all cases.	75
				102
	Vancomycin	PAP-AUC; MET; GRD Etest; BHI agar plus 3 or 4 µg/ml vancomycin; method comparison with PAP-AUC as the standard	Both Etest screening methods have excellent negative predictive values, but positive results require confirmation. BHI screening agars with 3 and 4 µg/ml vancomycin provided precise identification of hVISA and VISA, respectively.	84
				138
	Vancomycin	Broth microdilution; GRD Etest on 4,210 clinical isolates from 43 U.S. centers; PAP-AUC for GRD-positive isolates	Low reproducibility between test methods. The overall prevalence of hVISA was low (0.3%).	80
				63
	Vancomycin	Broth microdilution; MET, standard Etest on 220 clinical isolates (121 MSSA, 99 MRSA) from bloodstream infections; PAP-AUC; BHI agar plus 4 µg/ml vancomycin	MET identified 5.5% of isolates as hVISA isolates, with a higher percentage among MRSA isolates (9.1%) than among MSSA isolates (2.5%).	81
				98
	Vancomycin	PAP on 750 MRSA clinical strains isolated from Japan in 1990, before the introduction of injectable vancomycin into clinical use in Japan, in 1991	Identified 5.1% of strains as hVISA strains from 19 hospitals. hVISA was present in Japanese hospitals before clinical introduction of vancomycin.	54
				162
	Vancomycin	Etest; PAP-AUC on 288 MRSA isolates from a Connecticut veterans hospital	A low prevalence of hVISA argues against routine screening.	89
				163
	Vancomycin	PAP on 268 MRSA isolates from Seoul, Republic of Korea	A total of 37.7% of isolates were identified as hVISA. However, overall mortalities were similar in hVISA- and VSSA-infected patients.	29
				44
MRSA	Glycopeptides, daptomycin	GRD Etest; PAP-AUC on 43 MRSA isolates from Malaysia	Two isolates were hVISA.	45
				45
<i>S. aureus</i>	Daptomycin	PAP by CFU counts (narrow increments)	Would still be heterogeneous if 2-fold increments were used. PAP demonstrated daptomycin heteroresistance among tested hVISA and VISA strains.	44
				45
Toxicogenic <i>Clostridium difficile</i>	Metronidazole	Etest and disc diffusion assay (appearance of colonies in clear zone)	Prolonged exposure to metronidazole can select for resistance <i>in vitro</i> . Routine disc diffusion assays (5-µg metronidazole disc) with primary fresh <i>C. difficile</i> isolates were recommended.	44
				45
<i>C. difficile</i>	Metronidazole	Heteroresistance to metronidazole was detected in ~24% of 110 isolates.	The MIC of ciprofloxacin for cells selected from plates with the highest concentration allowing growth was higher than that for the parental strains.	44
<i>Staphylococcus</i>	Ciprofloxacin but not nalidixic acid	PAP and MIC determination	Ten of 11 strains tested displayed heteroresistance. Cell populations had cells with different levels of resistance. More resistant subpopulations exhibited homogeneous resistance compared to their respective parental strains.	44
<i>S. pneumoniae</i>	Fosfomicin	PAP (wide scale of increments (>2-fold))		44
<i>S. aureus</i>	Fusidic acid	PAP by CFU counts (narrow increments)		45

^a BHI, brain heart infusion; MH, Mueller-Hinton; GRD Etest, glycopeptide resistance detection Etest; MET, macro-Etest (referring to an Etest in which larger inoculum sizes increase the probability of detection of more resistant members of the bacterial population); hGISA, heterogeneous glycopeptide-intermediate *S. aureus*; hVISA, heterogeneous vancomycin-intermediate *S. aureus*; MSSA, methicillin-sensitive *S. aureus*; VSSA, vancomycin-sensitive *S. aureus*; PAP-AUC, population analysis profiling-area under the curve method.

TABLE 2 Cases of heteroresistance in Gram-negative bacteria

Organism(s)	Antibiotic(s)	Method(s)	Comments	Reference
Type b <i>H. influenzae</i>	Streptomycin	PAP by CFU counts (concentrations of <10–1,000 U/ml)	Most of the culture was inhibited at 10 U/ml. Few resistant cells survived at 10–100 U/ml, and fewer still at 1,000 U/ml.	2
<i>Enterobacter aerogenes</i> , <i>E. coli</i> , other enterobacteria	Cefamandole, cefoxitin, carbenicillin, nalidixic acid	PAP by CFU counts (2-fold increments)	This assay format was used to determine antibiotic resistance frequency.	25
<i>E. coli</i>	Cefamandole, cefotaxime, cefoxitin, imipenem	Turbidimetric PAP (\geq 2-fold increments)	Coculture assays showed protection of sensitive cells by β -lactamases produced from resistant cells against β -lactamase-sensitive agents (cefamandole, but not cefotaxime, cefoxitin, or imipenem)	43
8 species of <i>Enterobacteriaceae</i>	Cefotaxime	PAP (<i>E. coli</i> and <i>Proteus mirabilis</i> were homogeneous, <i>Klebsiella oxytoca</i> and <i>Citrobacter koseri</i> were less homogeneous, and <i>Enterobacter cloacae</i> , <i>Citrobacter freundii</i> , <i>Proteus vulgaris</i> , and <i>Morganella morganii</i> were heterogeneous)	More resistant subpopulations from the 4 heteroresistant species had very high increases in cephalothinase activity compared to parental strains.	28
<i>P. aeruginosa</i> and 7 strains from 5 genera of <i>Enterobacteriaceae</i>	Ciprofloxacin	PAP and MIC	The MIC of ciprofloxacin for cells selected from the plates with the highest concentration allowing growth was higher than that of the parental strains.	29
<i>Helicobacter pylori</i>	Metronidazole	Etest and disc diffusion assay (small or large colonies were growing within the zone of inhibition)	Risk of misinterpretations when antibiotic susceptibility testing is based on a single colony picked from the populations isolated from patients.	86
<i>A. baumannii</i>	Imipenem, meropenem	Etest (colonies in the clear zone of inhibition)	The study warns that using carbapenems may lead to selection of resistant subpopulations, subsequently causing dissemination of resistant strains, and to therapeutic failure.	94
<i>P. aeruginosa</i>	Imipenem, meropenem	Disc diffusion assay (colonies in inhibition zone); PAP by CFU counts (narrow increments and low initial inoculum)	Subpopulations (<0.1% of 10^8 to 10^9 CFU/ml) grew in the presence of colistin at 3 to 10 μ g/ml, while the MIC of entire populations ranged from 0.25 to 2 μ g/ml. The study warns that the recommended dosing is suboptimal for heteroresistant strains.	9
Invasive nontypeable <i>H. influenzae</i>	Imipenem	PAP by CFU counts, using 2-fold increments, and Etest to determine MIC	The presence of subpopulations growing at high antibiotic concentrations, at frequencies of 6.9×10^{-5} to 1.1×10^{-7} , suggests that these cells might not be detected by standard agar dilution MIC assay.	55
<i>Enterobacter cloacae</i> and <i>A. baumannii</i>	Colistin	PAP by CFU counts, using 2-fold increments, and Etest to determine MIC	Iso-Sensitest agar was better than Mueller-Hinton agar for detection of heteroresistance.	35
<i>A. baumannii-calcoaceticus</i> complex	Colistin	Disk diffusion; Etest; agar dilution; broth microdilution	Heteroresistance was defined by growth of colonies on plates containing 8 μ g/ml of colistin, while the MIC was 8 μ g/ml by broth microdilution.	11
<i>P. aeruginosa</i>	Carbapenems	PAP by CFU counts, using 2-fold increments	Mutant subpopulations had at least 4-fold higher MICs than those of native cells for imipenem and meropenem.	36
<i>Bartonella</i> sp.	Ciprofloxacin	Agar dilution according to CLSI method, using increments of 2 μ g/ml for concentrations ranging from 2 to 32 μ g/ml and of 8 μ g/ml for concentrations of 32 to 64 μ g/ml		57
<i>A. baumannii</i>	Ampicillin-sulbactam	Etest		96
<i>E. aerogenes</i>	Carbapenems	Etest (incubation for \geq 48 h)	Resistance could be induced after \geq 48 h of antimicrobial exposure; hence, 24 h of incubation of test plates may not be enough to screen for heteroresistance.	99
<i>A. baumannii</i>	Carbapenems	Disc diffusion assay; Etest (colonies in clear zone of inhibition)	<i>In vivo</i> evolution of an antimicrobial profile from susceptibility to full resistance to carbapenems was observed, with heteroresistance as an intermediate stage.	90
<i>K. pneumoniae</i>	Meropenem	Etest	Automated MicroScan WalkAway system failed to detect heteroresistance detected by Etest.	164
<i>A. baumannii</i>	Meropenem	PAP by CFU counts, using 2-fold increments	The study suggests that <i>A. baumannii</i> isolates that are apparently meropenem susceptible by standard susceptibility testing may contain resistant subpopulations that can be selected for by suboptimal therapeutic drug dosages.	39
<i>A. baumannii</i>	Meropenem	MIC determination and PAP (2-fold increments); time-kill assays	Regrowth of heteroresistant strains after initial killing phase.	40
<i>A. baumannii</i>	Carbapenems	Etest (colonies in inhibition zone); PAP	Low reproducibility of MIC led to investigation of heteroresistance.	101
<i>A. baumannii</i>	Imipenem	Etest; disc diffusion assay (colonies in inhibition zone)	Switch from imipenem susceptibility to heteroresistance was more likely to occur in strains successively isolated from patients who had been exposed to imipenem (10.9 \pm 6.5 days for exposure versus 5.3 \pm 4.8 days for controls).	91

Carbapenemase-producing <i>K. pneumoniae</i>	Colistin	PAP by CFU counts, using 2-fold increments, and MIC determination	41
<i>A. baumannii</i>	Cefepime	PAP by CFU counts, using 2-fold increments; Etest; disc diffusion assay	18
	Carbapenems	Disc diffusion assay (colonies in zone of inhibition)	92
<i>P. aeruginosa</i>	Polymyxin B	PAP by CFU counts (polymyxin B concentrations of 0 to 8 µg/ml)	65
<i>B. cenocepacia</i>	Polymyxin B, norfloxacin, rifampin, ceftazidime, gentamicin	Etest; PAP by CFU counts and turbidimetric PAP (2-fold increments)	6
<i>E. cloacae</i> , <i>E. aerogenes</i>	Polymyxin B	PAP	105
<i>H. pylori</i>	Levofloxacin, clarithromycin, metronidazole	MIC determination by Etest and agar dilution for 19 pairs of clinical isolates; each pair was isolated from the same patient	21
<i>Providencia rettgeri</i> <i>Bordetella pertussis</i>	Carbapenems Erythromycin	PAP by CFU counts Disc diffusion assay and Etest	134 88

Heteroresistance was referred to as phenotypic heterogeneous resistance.

Isolates presenting subpopulations that exhibited growth at polymyxin B concentrations of ≥ 2 µg/ml were considered heteroresistant. Isolates containing subpopulations that grew at polymyxin B concentrations of at least twice the original MIC but < 2 µg/ml were considered heterogeneous.

Detailed comparison of population-wide responses to bacteriostatic versus bactericidal antibiotics, showing heteroresistance only against bactericidal agents. Criteria adopted for interpretation of heteroresistance are similar to those recommended here.

Multiple skip wells were observed in polymyxin susceptibility testing of *Enterobacter* species, leading to uninterpretable results. Heteroresistance was reported when pairs showed differences in resistance in 5, 1, and 19 cases for levofloxacin, clarithromycin, and metronidazole, respectively.

Heteroresistance was not detected except for after 7 days of incubation, when colonies appeared in the clear zone.

Degradation of erythromycin from the disc upon long incubation was ruled out.

common among *S. aureus* strains (47, 50, 61, 63, 70, 79, 95). Others reported that heteroresistance to vancomycin is not prevalent (51, 64, 72, 73, 80, 81, 102, 106). These studies promoted the assessment of heteroresistance in clinical laboratories as a standard procedure, but the results were conflicting because different criteria to define heteroresistance were adopted and improper methods to detect heterogeneity were mostly used (see Measuring Heteroresistance, above).

Fewer reports have described heteroresistance in Gram-negative bacteria. Table 2 summarizes the incidences of heteroresistance in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Klebsiella*, *Acinetobacter*, and *B. cenocepacia*.

Antibiotic resistance generally can be intrinsic or acquired (107), and the same applies to heteroresistance. Intrinsic heteroresistance occurs without preexposure to the antibiotic but may also be acquired or induced after initial exposure to antibiotics. For example, repeated exposure of homogeneously sensitive staphylococci to methicillin resulted in mixed populations resembling intrinsically heteroresistant strains (3). Similarly, *B. cenocepacia* displayed intrinsic heteroresistance to several bactericidal antibiotics, including polymyxin B (6). However, acquired resistance after exposure to multiple rounds of selection in polymyxin B was shown for a *B. cenocepacia hldA* mutant possessing a truncated lipopolysaccharide, which developed highly resistant subpopulations at polymyxin B levels not even tolerated by the most resistant members of the original population (108). A similar selection for MRSA, involving stepwise exposure to vancomycin, led to acquired heteroresistance (109). Acquired heteroresistance may also originate from genetic events, such as transposition (110, 111) or conjugation (112). The generated progenies include cells having different MICs due to differences in the number of copies of the inserted resistance genes or random disruption of genes involved in the bacterial response to antibiotics.

Molecules besides antibiotics can also induce heteroresistance. For example, exogenous glycine led to heterogeneous responses to methicillin in the highly homogeneous MRSA COL strain (31). The heterogeneous resistance phenotype in this case was decreased methicillin resistance in subsets of the population, as increasing glycine concentrations in the medium resulted in replacement of the D-alanyl-D-alanine peptidoglycan muropeptides with D-alanyl-glycine muropeptides.

Bacteria growing as biofilms are physiologically distinct from their planktonic counterparts and generally more resistant to antibiotics (113). Biofilms are populations of microorganisms that are concentrated at an interface (usually solid-liquid) on biotic or abiotic surfaces and typically surrounded by an extracellular polymeric matrix (113). Bacterial cells within a biofilm display a wide range of physiological states; these states arise from genotypic and phenotypic variations leading to distinct metabolic pathways, stress responses, and other differences (114). Variations in levels of resistance across a bacterial population, together with an enhanced ability to form biofilms, act synergistically in *P. aeruginosa* infection (115). While biofilms occur in many infectious diseases, standard antimicrobial susceptibility testing procedures rely on planktonic cells. Thus, whether biofilms and the inherent variability among their populations contribute to the detection of heteroresistance remains to be explored.

MECHANISMS OF HETERORESISTANCE

Nongenetic individuality in bacterial populations has been observed in differentiation and cell division (116), chemotaxis (117), enzymatic activity (118), sporulation (119), stress responses, and antibiotic resistance (120–122). These variations can be attributed to genetic, epigenetic, and nongenetic mechanisms. Genetic mechanisms explain many cases of variation across a bacterial population, since increased resistance may be due to mutations or gene duplications of key resistance genes or regulatory systems. Long-term infection may result in instability of bacterial genomic DNA, potentially leading to heteroresistance. For example, mutations in gene products having metronidazole nitroreductase activities, mainly oxygen-insensitive NADPH nitroreductase (RdxA) and NADPH flavin oxidoreductase (FrxA), occurred in *H. pylori* strains that were heteroresistant to metronidazole (21). Epigenetic variation across the bacterial population can also occur. In this case, one or more genes whose products are involved in resistance to antibiotics are differentially expressed among cells within a bacterial population. Other nongenetic mechanisms involved in heteroresistance include chemicals in the bacterial milieu that may modulate the response to antibiotics across the bacterial population. For example, putrescine mediates heteroresistance of *B. cenocepacia* to multiple antibiotics (6), and glycine leads to heterogeneous responses to methicillin in *S. aureus* (31). These mechanisms are discussed below, with more details specific to each antibiotic class.

Heteroresistance to β -Lactams

Chambers et al. showed that increased production of PBP2a, encoded by *mecA*, was responsible for increased methicillin resistance of a subset of the population (27). However, further studies by the same group revealed that high levels of resistance require other factors acting within the autolysis pathway (123). Differences in regulation of autolysins in homogeneous versus heterogeneous resistant strains were suggested (124). However, subsequent reports argued against the involvement of *mecA* (8, 34) and penicillinase (34) in methicillin heteroresistance. Regulatory systems contribute to heteroresistance. Inactivation of transcription regulators, such as Sar (125) and the Sigma B operon (126), was another factor suggested to underlie heteroresistance in MRSA (127). Nevertheless, Sigma B contributed to methicillin resistance but not heteroresistance in *Staphylococcus epidermidis*; inactivation of the anti-sigma factor RsbW switched heteroresistance to homogeneous high-level resistance (128). Heteroresistance to homogeneous high-resistance selection (HeR-HoR selection) by oxacillin was associated with an increased mutation rate and expression of *mecA* and the SOS response *lexA/recA* gene regulators (129). Increased expression of the *agr* (accessory gene regulator) system during HeR-HoR selection was required to tightly modulate SOS-mediated mutation rates, which then led to full expression of homogeneous oxacillin resistance in very heterogeneous clinical MRSA strains (130). The PBP1 protein played a role in SOS-mediated RecA activation and HeR-HoR selection (131). Conversely, a mutation in the less resistant cells of a heterogeneous population seemed to be responsible for their increased susceptibility. A single nucleotide polymorphism in the *dacA* (diadenylate cyclase) gene, which synthesizes the second messenger cyclic di-AMP (c-di-AMP), was detected in the more sensitive cells. Thus, decreasing c-di-AMP levels resulted in reduced autolysis,

increased salt tolerance, and reduced basal expression of the cell wall stress stimulon (132). Interestingly, Eagle-type heteroresistance was explained based on reduced repression of *mecA* transcription and penicillin-binding protein 2' production at a high concentration (128 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) of methicillin, which did not occur at lower concentrations (1 and 8 $\mu\text{g/ml}$). Deletion of *mecI*, the repressor of *mecA*, converted the Eagle-type resistance to homogeneous high-level methicillin resistance (16). In *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, the penicillin-binding protein PBP2x, but not PBP2b or PBP1a, from a heteroresistant strain conferred heteroresistance in a homogeneous strain (133). Counterintuitively, PBP2x expression was not altered in the more resistant cells, but the expression of certain phosphate ABC transporter subunits (PstS, PstB, PstC, and PhoU) was upregulated, which may represent a form of adaptation to antibiotic stress (133).

Heteroresistance to β -lactams occurs in several Gram-negative bacterial species. Increased cephalothinase activity of the more resistant subpopulation was reported for *Enterobacter cloacae*, *Citrobacter freundii*, *Proteus vulgaris*, and *Morganella morganii* (28). The New Delhi β -lactamase (NDM-1) conferred heteroresistance in *Providencia rettgeri* (134). Similarly, elevated expression of the β -lactamase gene in resistant subpopulations compared to native populations was detected in *Klebsiella pneumoniae* isolates heteroresistant to meropenem (40) and in imipenem-heteroresistant *A. baumannii* (91). However, certain carbapenem-heteroresistant *A. baumannii* isolates were carbapenemase negative, suggesting that other factors are involved in the phenomenon (90). Differences in transcriptional levels may also underlie heteroresistance to carbapenems in *P. aeruginosa*; compared to the native populations, the resistant subpopulations had significantly increased transcription levels of the *mexB* and *mexY* genes, whose protein products are involved in multidrug efflux, and decreased expression of the *oprD* gene, encoding an outer membrane porin (57). Slower growth of β -lactam-resistant subpopulations of *A. baumannii* may protect against antibiotic challenge (18). In *Enterobacter* species, mutation of *ampD*, which is involved in the regulation of production of a class C β -lactamase, at rates as high as 10^{-4} to 10^{-6} , resulted in a heterogeneous population of bacterial cells with differing levels of β -lactam resistance (135). Heteroresistance of invasive nontypeable *H. influenzae* to imipenem depended in part on the penicillin-binding protein PBP3, encoded by *ftsI*, on PBP4, encoded by *dacB*, or on the AcrAB efflux system, with a potential role of regulatory networks in the control of the heterogeneous expression of the resistance phenotype (35). In *B. cenocepacia*, an ornithine decarboxylase homologue and YceI, a small conserved protein, played a role in heteroresistance to cef-tazidime (6).

A model of heteroresistance was constructed by introducing into a sensitive *Escherichia coli* strain the *bla*_{CTX-M-14} gene, encoding a cephalosporin hydrolase, on a plasmid carrying the green fluorescent protein gene. This permitted monitoring of heteroresistant bacteria, since a subset of the cells expressed more hydrolase and hence exhibited a higher level of resistance to ceftriaxone (136). Heteroresistance was followed on a single-cell level owing to the fusion with green fluorescent protein. This study showed that cells with hydrolase overexpression formed the majority of the population upon increasing antibiotic concentrations, due to decreased growth rates rather than selection for resistant cells (136).

Heteroresistance to Glycopeptides

Heteroresistance to glycopeptides has not been linked directly to a particular mechanism. Some studies reported an increased incidence of mutations of regulatory genes in the heteroresistant populations. For example, *agr* was dysfunctional in 58% of hVISA strains but only 21% of MRSA strains (84); hence, *agr* dysfunction seems to be advantageous to *S. aureus* clinical isolates for the development of vancomycin heteroresistance (49, 137). Similarly, compared to vancomycin-susceptible MRSA, 13 of 38 (34%) hVISA isolates possessed at least 1 nonsynonymous mutation: 6 in *vraSR*, 7 in *walRK*, and 2 in *rpoB* (138).

Several mutations increase resistance to glycopeptides, but whether these are involved in population-wide variations in resistance has yet to be determined. Mutation of the *vraS* gene led to upregulation of the *VraSR* two-component system and conversion to the hVISA phenotype (38). Various mutations within the essential *walKR* two-component regulatory locus, involved in control of cell wall metabolism, conferred increased resistance to vancomycin and daptomycin among several VISA strains (139). Also, a mutation in the response regulator of the *GraSR* two-component regulatory system could increase the resistance of hVISA to that of VISA, suggesting that this is a mechanism of increased resistance, in general, rather than of heteroresistance (140). The *rpoB* mutation, but not *graR* mutation, was involved in hVISA (62), while in *S. aureus*, *rpoB*-mediated resistance to vancomycin was accompanied by a thickened cell wall and a reduced cell surface negative charge (141). Furthermore, cell wall thickening was proportional to increased resistance to glycopeptides in coagulase-negative staphylococci (53, 142) and in *S. aureus* (143), and rapid cell wall turnover with increasing positive charges through *dltA* overexpression led to repulsion of vancomycin and daptomycin (137). The expression of *atlE* (encoding an autolysin with an adhesive function) also increased proportionally with the vancomycin concentration in a culture of *S. epidermidis* (142).

Independent novel mutations in the *vanR*, *vanS*, *vanH*, *vanA*, *vanX*, and *vanY* genes, occurring upon continuous exposure to antibiotics, can give rise to heteroresistance among vancomycin-resistant enterococcal strains (15, 97). Subpopulations of *Enterococcus faecalis* with different surface charges, expressed as bimodal zeta potential distributions, were reported (144), and this phenotype may lead to heteroresistance similar to that of staphylococci.

Heteroresistance to Antimicrobial Peptides

The mechanism of colistin heteroresistance in *A. baumannii* was attributed to a loss of lipopolysaccharide production in subpopulations displaying high-level colistin resistance, which were selected by serial passages on colistin plates at increasing concentrations (145). Loss of lipopolysaccharide was caused by an insertion sequence inactivating the lipid A biosynthesis genes *lpxA* and *lpxC* (146). In contrast, heteroresistance to polymyxin B in *B. cenocepacia* depends on differences in the levels of secretion of putrescine and YceI, which are differentially expressed across the different subpopulations (6). Moreover, a periplasmic component of an ABC transporter involved in biosynthesis of hopanoids was overexpressed in the more resistant subpopulation exposed to polymyxin B (6). While the role of this transporter in heteroresistance was not directly evaluated, hopanoids contribute to polymyxin B resistance in *B. cenocepacia* (147).

Heteroresistance to Fluoroquinolones

The heterogeneity of *Bartonella* sp. susceptibility to ciprofloxacin was linked to a natural mutation, Ser-83 to Ala (*E. coli* numbering), in the quinolone resistance-determining region of *gyrA* (96). Similarly, *gyrA* and *gyrB* mutations were associated with levofloxacin heteroresistance in *H. pylori*; three amino acid mutation sites (positions 87, 91, and 143) were found in *GyrA* of levofloxacin-resistant strains, and an A406G amino acid substitution in *GyrB* was found only once (21). Putrescine and, to a lesser extent, YceI contributed to heteroresistance of *B. cenocepacia* to norfloxacin, as mutants unable to produce either of them showed a more homogeneous response to norfloxacin (6).

Heteroresistance to Fosfomycin

Heteroresistance to fosfomycin is predominant among *S. pneumoniae* isolates (44). The UDP-*N*-acetylglucosamine enolpyruvyltransferase *MurA1*, which catalyzes the first step of peptidoglycan synthesis, contributes to heteroresistance against fosfomycin; however, this is not the only factor involved, and such heteroresistance is potentially multifactorial (44).

Heteroresistance to Rifampin

The small protein YceI and, to a lesser extent, putrescine, produced by the antibiotic-responsive ornithine decarboxylase, are involved in heteroresistance of *B. cenocepacia* to rifampin (6). Deletion of the genes encoding these proteins individually showed less heterogeneous phenotypes than that of the wild-type strain.

CLINICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF HETERORESISTANCE

While some reports question the clinical significance of heteroresistance (51, 63, 76, 148), others argue that there is a deterioration in clinical outcomes due to heteroresistant bacteria (46, 50, 64, 71, 77, 78, 149–152). Lack of a standard definition of heteroresistance may lead to misidentification of homogeneous strains as heteroresistant, hindering proper assessment of its clinical relevance. Heteroresistance may also be misinterpreted when only a single colony, picked from primary bacterial populations isolated from patients, is analyzed for susceptibility to antibiotics (86). Heteroresistance has been relevant in recurrent infections (46, 71), chronic infections (78), and infections with increased mortality rates (64, 77, 150, 151). Underlying mechanisms for these therapeutic failures may have been antibiotic selection for the more resistant cells within the bacterial population and chemical communication of resistance, as described in more detail below.

Selection for the More Resistant Cells in the Population

Therapeutic dosing of antibiotics without considering the highly resistant subpopulations of a heteroresistant isolate will select for the more resistant subpopulations. This is particularly the case when the majority of the population is sensitive to antibiotics and only a small subset, undetectable through criteria set for traditional *in vitro* antibiotic susceptibility testing, displays resistance above the clinical breakpoint (Fig. 1). In these situations, antibiotic therapy will lead to eradication of the more sensitive members of the bacterial population and their replacement by the more resistant cells. For example, colistin treatment of a patient with meningitis due to a colistin-heteroresistant *A. baumannii* strain resulted in selection of colistin-resistant derivatives (149). More-

over, *A. baumannii* isolates transitioned *in vivo* from susceptibility to full resistance to carbapenems, with heteroresistance as an intermediate stage, due to administration of meropenem (90). Meropenem pressure can produce meropenem-heteroresistant subpopulations of *A. baumannii* that may be selected for by suboptimal therapeutic drug dosages, giving rise to highly resistant strains (39). Evidence of *in vivo* development of heteroresistance from antibiotic therapy was also seen in a patient with MRSA (98). Initial treatment with glycopeptides led to the development of heterogeneous glycopeptide resistance, which transformed to full resistance following daptomycin treatment. A similar switch from susceptibility to heteroresistance occurred in *A. baumannii* infections after prolonged exposure to imipenem (91).

Chemical Communication of Antibiotic Resistance

Highly resistant subpopulations of heteroresistant bacteria may further complicate the clinical picture of polymicrobial infections by providing protection to more sensitive bacteria through chemical signals. For example, *P. aeruginosa* could be protected from the antimicrobial peptide polymyxin B by a highly resistant subpopulation of the heteroresistant cystic fibrosis pathogen *B. cenocepacia* (6). Simultaneous infection by both organisms is not uncommon, since cystic fibrosis patients often have polymicrobial infections (153). The polyamine putrescine and the YceI protein, a small, conserved protein with a lipocalin fold, mediated protection. These chemicals were released from *B. cenocepacia* in the presence of the antibiotic and resulted in survival of *P. aeruginosa* at a polymyxin B concentration equivalent to recommended therapeutic breakpoints at which *P. aeruginosa* should be killed in pure culture (6). Exposure to host-derived putrescine and other polyamines led to a transient increase in resistance to antimicrobial peptides in the urogenital pathogen *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* (154), suggesting that communication of resistance mediated by polyamines is likely a general phenomenon. Putrescine protected the surfaces of bacteria from the initial binding of polymyxin B (6) and reduced antibiotic-induced oxidative stress (155), while YceI could bind and sequester polymyxin B, thus potentially reducing its levels in the bacterial milieu (6).

Indole is another chemical signal implicated in the communication of antibiotic resistance. More resistant *E. coli* mutants arising from continuous antibiotic treatment protected less resistant cells of the same population from norfloxacin and gentamicin (156). Such mutants could maintain the same levels of indole production in the presence of antibiotic treatment, which protected less resistant cells that produced lower concentrations of indole under antibiotic stress. These mutants cannot be considered highly resistant, as their MIC is around the MIC breakpoint for antibiotic sensitivity, especially for norfloxacin, hence questioning their survival *in vivo* at therapeutic doses of antibiotics. Moreover, this *E. coli* bacterial population may not be truly heteroresistant, owing to the lack of significant variation in concentrations tolerated by its members. Although indole production is not common among bacteria (157), indole produced by *E. coli* conferred antibiotic resistance to indole-negative *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium (158), demonstrating another example of chemical communication. Protection from antibiotics also occurred through antibiotic-degrading enzymes. Protection of sensitive bacteria was mediated by β -lactamases produced from resistant *E. coli* cells against β -lactamase-sensitive agents, such as cefamandole, but

not cefotaxime, ceftioxin, or imipenem, which are more resistant to β -lactamases (43).

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Despite being recognized since 1947, heteroresistance is often used indiscriminately to describe observations unrelated to population-wide responses to antibiotics. The lack of standard test formats and global guidelines for determining heteroresistance contributes to disagreements between outcomes of different methods and diverse results from different laboratories (69, 74, 75). Since heteroresistance may have serious implications in antimicrobial therapy, a standard operational definition and methods to assess its clinical importance are essential.

We recommend defining heteroresistance as a population-wide variation of antibiotic resistance, where different subpopulations within an isolate exhibit various susceptibilities to a particular antimicrobial agent. Concerning methods, PAP remains the gold standard for detecting heteroresistance by CFU counts. Turbidimetric PAP is also an acceptable alternative if antibiotic concentration increments are set at 2-fold; however, monitoring bacterial growth at time points earlier than 24 h (and after reaching the late log phase/early stationary phase) may be advisable to watch for outgrowth of the more resistant subpopulation. Therefore, an isolate can be considered heteroresistant when the lowest antibiotic concentration giving maximum growth inhibition is >8-fold higher than the highest noninhibitory concentration. An 8-fold difference may be regarded as intermediate heteroresistance, while a smaller difference denotes a homogeneous response to the antibiotic. In homogeneous cultures, the entire population is usually inhibited over a narrow increment of antibiotic in a standard MIC broth or agar dilution assay, with cases of intermediate growth before reaching maximal inhibition at only one antibiotic concentration increment above the highest noninhibitory concentration. This general observation of a homogeneous response to antibiotics was documented for PAP assays in our recent study (6). Since 2-fold fluctuations in antibiotic sensitivity may normally occur, a further 2-fold increase in the transition from no inhibition to full inhibition relative to the homogeneous response was considered to indicate intermediate heteroresistance; greater differences (>8-fold) indicated heteroresistance, as previously shown (6). This is similar to results observed in previous reports, but with more standardization; for example, the concentration inhibiting the entire population in PAP assays was 8-fold higher than the MIC value (which cannot detect the more resistant minority), as opposed to the case for homogeneous bacteria, where it was the same concentration or just 2-fold higher (41). Disc diffusion or Etest assays, where growth of discrete colonies within the clear zone of inhibition indicates heteroresistance, may be an alternative to PAP. The discrete colonies represent subpopulations growing at concentrations that are inhibitory to the rest of the bacterial population, suggesting a population-wide variation in resistance. Antibiotic diffusion methods may therefore speed up screening of clinical isolates, but they cannot replace PAP assays. In the absence of specific recommendations to address heteroresistance from agencies concerned with antibiotic resistance, such as CLSI, BSAC, and others, we propose a workflow scheme and interpretation criteria based on standard antibiotic sensitivity testing recommended by the same agencies (Fig. 2). This scheme includes modifications in the readout and existing standard assays for detection of population-wide vari-

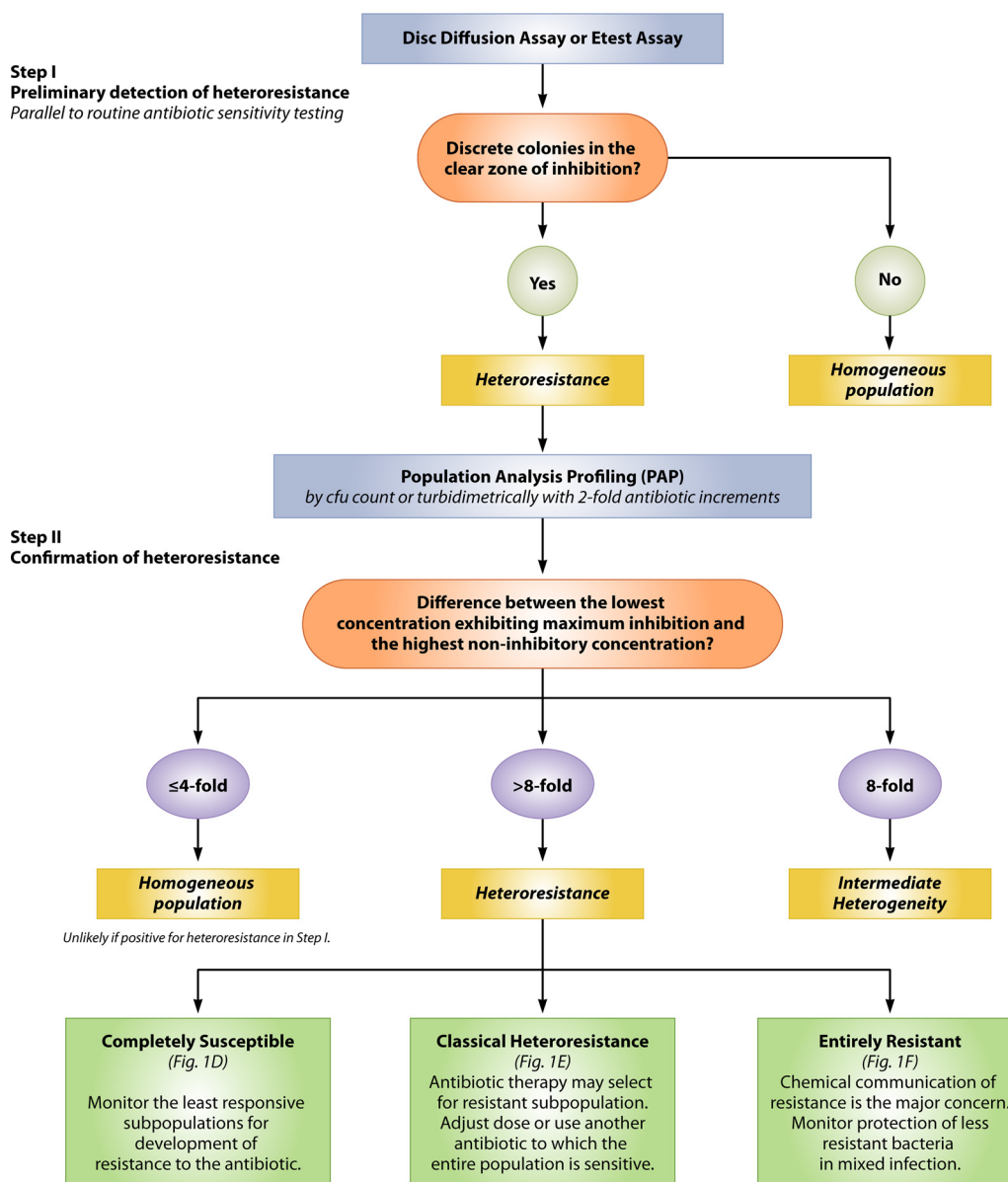


FIG 2 Recommended scheme for determination of heteroresistance and interpretation criteria. Disc diffusion assays should be performed according to standardized procedures for antimicrobial susceptibility testing as recommended by agencies such as CLSI and BSAC. These procedures may be applied to Etest assays while taking into consideration the manufacturer's guidelines. PAP by CFU counts should be performed by plating aliquots of 10-fold serially diluted bacterial cultures on antibiotic-containing agar plates. Agar plate preparation should follow standardized guidelines for MIC determination by agar dilution assays. Turbidimetric PAP should follow standard guidelines for MIC determination by the broth dilution technique, with the exception of turbidimetric quantification of bacterial growth at each antibiotic concentration.

ation in antibiotic resistance (Fig. 2). Having worldwide standard criteria to define and assess heteroresistance will facilitate assessing its prevalence, clinical relevance, and impact on health care. Consequently, effective therapeutic strategies should be explored to counteract heteroresistance, which may include testing synergistic combinations of antibiotics (159) and using antibiotic adjuvants inhibiting key pathways involved in antibiotic resistance in conjunction with frontline antibiotics (6). A standard definition of heteroresistance would also help to elucidate its nature by determining whether common mechanisms exist among different bacteria and against different antibiotic classes and by finding new targets for its disruption.

We urge global organizations concerned with antimicrobial resistance to advocate for harmonized recommendations and to coordinate a general consensus concerning heteroresistance. We believe that this is of utmost importance, especially in clinical practice, where thousands of clinical isolates are currently screened for heteroresistance, but with nonstandardized methods that differ among laboratories, precluding a global picture of this problem. We anticipate that accurate and standardized detection of heteroresistance will translate into superior therapeutic outcomes based on improved identification of heteroresistant bacteria and optimized strategies to eradicate them.

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Omar M. El-Halfawy recently completed a Ph.D. in Microbiology and Immunology at the University of Western Ontario. He received his B.Sc. in Pharmaceutical Sciences from Alexandria University, Egypt, in 2005. After working as a Community Pharmacist for a few months, he accepted a Teaching Assistant position at the Faculty of Pharmacy, Alexandria University, Egypt, in 2006. He received his M.Sc. in Pharmaceutical Microbiology from Alexandria University, Egypt, in 2009, and became an Assistant Lecturer at the same university, also in 2009. His current interests involve mechanisms of intrinsic antibiotic resistance, in particular heteroresistance and antibiotic resistance mediated by metabolites and other bacterial components.



Miguel A. Valvano received his M.D. in 1976, from the University of Buenos Aires, Argentina. He specialized in Pediatrics, also in Buenos Aires, and trained in Molecular Microbiology as a fellow with Jorge H. Crosa at the Oregon Health Sciences University (1983 to 1988). In 1988, Dr. Valvano accepted a faculty position at the University of Western Ontario, where he progressed through the ranks to full Professor and also held a Tier I Canada Research Chair from 1992 to 2012. In 2012, he accepted a position as Professor at Queen's University Belfast. Dr. Valvano and his colleagues investigate the assembly of lipopolysaccharide, in particular the O antigen, in several Gram-negative bacteria, and also the molecular pathogenesis of opportunistic, nonfermentative Gram-negative bacteria, such as *Burkholderia cenocepacia*. This research also involves studying mechanisms of bacterial intracellular survival in macrophages and intrinsic antibiotic resistance. He is the recipient of a CSM/Roche Award from the Canadian Society of Microbiologists, Zeller's Award from Cystic Fibrosis Canada, and a Chair in Microbiology and Infectious Diseases from Queen's University Belfast.

