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Review Article

A Comprehensive Review of Antimicrobial Resistance against Colistin and Countermeasures

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Abstract

In times of increasing antimicrobial resistance (AMR), colistin is used as a last resort against numerous gramnegative bacteria such as *Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Klebsiella pneumoniae*, and *Acinetobacter baumannii*. Unfortunately, recent studies have shown that some species of gram-negative bacteria are becoming resistant to colistin. This has led to an increase in antimicrobial burden and limited treatment options against bacterial infections. This review highlights emerging studies aimed at optimizing the use of colistin. The frequent use of colistin for the treatment of infections has led to colistin resistance. Resistance patterns include intrinsic and acquired resistance mechanisms. The intrinsic resistance mechanism encompasses genetic modification of Lipopolysaccharide (LPS), whereas the acquired resistance mechanism involves modifications of PmrAB and PhoPQ, which alter the LPS membrane. Mutations in the *CrrB*, *ramA*, *romA*, *ramR*, *and KpnEF genes*, transfer of the *MCR* gene via plasmids, activation of efflux pumps, and capsule formation all accentuate colistin resistance. Various methods have been developed to detect resistance. Different combinatorial therapies and supramolecular traps have also been reported to be efficacious. Moreover, newer strategies and methods are required to prevent this global dilemma. This review comprehensively explains colistin resistance, its mechanisms, detection techniques, and future implications.

Keywords: Antimicrobial resistance (AMR), colistin, gram-negative, lipopolysaccharide, combinatorial therapies.

1. Introduction

Gastric carcinoma Antimicrobial resistance (AMR) occurs when microorganisms such as bacteria, fungi, viruses, and parasites acclimatize and flourish in the presence of previously used first-line medications (Morrison and Zembower 2020). It is correlated with an augmented risk of treatment failure and recurrence of disease. It becomes difficult to treat the infection which eventually spreads and causes severe illness and death. AMR is a great threat to our healthcare. Infections with AMR that cannot be treated lead to chronic illness ultimately prolonging hospital stays and escalating healthcare costs (Dadgostar 2019). Targeted therapy and selection of the appropriate antibiotic for the specific infection might slow down the spread of multidrug-resistant organisms (MDR) (Septimus 2018).

Colistin. а bactericidal polymyxin antibiotic is a cationic polypeptide that acts by disrupting the permeability of the cell wall by binding to anionic LPS and displacing divalent cations, i.e. Mg+2 and Ca+2, from the phosphate group of the membrane, eventually causing lipid leakage of cellular contents and subsequent bacterial death (Biswas et al. 2012). Colistin is used for infections caused multidrug-resistant (MDR) gramby

negative bacteria (GNB) such as Acinetobacter baumannii(Cai et al. 2012), Pseudomonas aeruginosa (Cortez et al. 2008), and Klebsiella pneumonia (Petrosillo, Taglietti, and Granata 2019). In the current therapeutic scenario, Colistin is used as the last resort against MDR and pan drugresistant (PDR) gram-negative infections (A. Z. Bialvaei and Samadi Kafil 2015a). Colistin has been marketed for 50 years as a prodrug colistin methane sulfonate (CMS). Colistin has been used as a salvage therapy and a restricted option for infections caused by MDR gram-negative bacteria. Colistin was used intravenously or through inhalation to treat infections with P. aeruginosa in adult and pediatric patients suffering from cystic fibrosis and MDR A. baumannii ventilator-associated pneumonia (VAP). To decrease systemic exposure and adverse effects of colistin, it was administered directly to the infected site to achieve selective targeting. The intrathecal administration of CMS to manage CNS infections has also proven to be effective. CMS is a prodrug that upon entering CSF is changed to colistin through hydrolysis. The concentration of colistin in CSF is appropriate through the intrathecal Published clinical route. data. pharmacokinetic profiling, and experimental data have declared colistin to be safe and efficacious in combating CNS infections (Imberti, Iotti, and Regazzi 2014). Intraventricular administration of CMS is efficacious for ventriculitis caused by MDR A. baumannii, This treatment proved to be remarkably pertinent with a few reports of chemical ventriculitis, chemical meningitis, and seizures in some patients (Nation and Li 2009).

Currently, different species of certain GNB are developing resistance to colistin. There are different mechanisms by which bacterial species develop resistance against colistin, which include intrinsic, mutations, or adaptation mechanisms apart from acquired resistance via the *MCR-1 gene*, which affects the membrane permeability of the bacteria cell wall (Moffatt et al. 2010) and modification of cell wall components (Snitkin et al. 2013); resistance acquired through heteroresistant bacteria (Jeannot, Bolard, and Plesiat 2017); efflux pumpsmediated Col-R (Cheah et al. 2016); and plasmid-mediated resistance (PMR) to polymyxins (W.G. Lima et al. 2018).

The emergence of Col-R has caused an increase in the burden of antimicrobial infections. It is also becoming difficult to treat the infections caused by those species of bacteria that have developed resistance against colistin, as it is the last resort treatment option. Col-R is increasing the concern of microbiologists for controlling bacterial infections. Until now. Κ. pneumoniae (Cannatelli et al. 2014), A. baumannii (Hood et al. 2013), P. aeruginosa (Muller, Plésiat, and Jeannot 2011), S. enterica (T. Lima, Domingues, and Da Silva 2019), V. cholera, and certain species of E. coli have been resistant to colistin. This is becoming a serious issue that needs to be addressed as soon as possible.

In this article, we will discuss the mechanism, susceptibility factors, current situation of Col-R in the world, techniques used to detect resistance in individuals, the ways by which we can slow down further resistance in microbes, and how we can deal with this problem.

2. Colistin - An Effective Molecule Against Resistant Bacteria

The increase in AMR will become a global crisis in the future. There is a need for an antibiotic that can be used against multidrug-resistant (MDR), extensively drug-resistant (XDR), and pandrugresistant (PDR) strains of different bacteria that cause hospital-acquired infections in patients. For this purpose, colistin (polymyxin E), and polymyxin B are used as "last resort" antimicrobials against infections caused by MDR GNB (Watkins, Smith, and Bonomo 2016). Polymyxins are a structurally distinct class of nonribosomal, oligopeptide antibiotics, that are structurally divided into five chemical classes (i.e., polymyxin A, B, C, D, and E) out of which polymyxin B and E are only commercially available (El-Sayed Ahmed et al. 2020).

The LPS constituents in the outer membrane of bacteria provide a protective function, serving as a barrier for large antibiotics hydrophobic (Vidaillac, Benichou, and Duval 2012). LPS is a polyanionic prodrug that serves as the initial target for colistin. Colistin detains a positive charge that alters bacterial membrane integrity and stability. (Abed Zahedi Bialvaei and Samadi Kafil 2015b) Lipid A in LPS plays a pivotal role in permeability membrane and cellular exchange, it also acts as an endotoxin. (Vidaillac, Benichou, and Duval 2012) Colistin through electrostatic interaction binds to the negatively charged phosphate group of Lipid A, a component of anionic LPS. By binding to Lipid A, it exhibits antiendotoxin activity. These endotoxins are microbial mediators in case of septic shock (Sampson et al. 2012). Colistin microspheres decrease these endotoxins by neutralizing them and by inhibiting cytokines release in endotoxin-induced sepsis. The Cationic detergent activity of colistin is proof of its bactericidal activity, which occurs via a two-step mechanism. It displaces Ca+2 and Mg+2 hence deranging the LPS constituents of the cell membrane. These divalent ions are membrane stabilizers that are competitively displaced by colistin. This results in altered permeability of the cell membrane and osmotic gradient of the cell, thus impairing the three-dimensional LPS framework

(Mendes and Burdmann 2009). The second step involves the incorporation of a terminal acyl fat chain constituting a hydrophobic nature, it augments permeation of colistin into the inner membrane. This allows colistin to interact with the inner cytoplasmic membrane (Li et al. 2005). The hydrophilic groups in fatty acid chains cause the phospholipid bilayer of the inner member to lose its integrity. This results in havoc eventually causing cell lysis and discharge of cellular components (Abed Zahedi Bialvaei and Samadi Kafil 2015b). Figure 1 represents the mechanism of action of colistin. It demonstrates how colistin kills bacteria and shows its antibacterial effects.

3. Epidemiology of Colistin Resistance

Resistance to colistin has been detected in various parts of the world. Certain GNB mentioned in Table 1 have developed resistance to the drug. According to recent reports, in Pakistan, A. baumannii 27, K. pneumonia 28,29 & E. coli 30,31 have become resistant to Colistin. Reports also show a high prevalence of resistance against Colistin in tertiary care hospitals (Bashir and Ahmed 2016; W. Liao et al. 2022). There also have been an increasing number of reports of Col-R from different regions of Europe (Y. Wang et al. 2020), Korea (S.-Y. Lee et al. 2020), Lebanon (Moghnieh et al. 2021), USA (Tyson et al. 2020) & Russia (Kuleshov et al. 2021; Azizov et al. 2019). Thailand has the highest prevalence of resistance to Colistin while South Korea reports the least resistance (Uzairue et al. 2022).

4. Mechanistic Insights in Colistin Resistance

The following resistance mechanisms are demonstrated in **Figure 2**. It briefly describes how certain species of bacteria are developing resistance against Colistin.

Name of bacteria	Resistance	Region of resistance References	
Acinetobacter	Partial +	Pakistan, Europe,	(Antoniadou et al. 2007; Ko et al. 2007; Ahsan et al.
baumannii		Korea	2022)
Pseudomonas	Partial +	Denmark	(Johansen et al. 2008)
aeroginosa			
Klebsiella pneumonia	Slight +	Pakistan, Thailand,	(Prevention and Control 2015; Imtiaz et al. 2021;
		Greece, Italy	Uzairue et al. 2022)
Proteus mirabilis	Slight +	Lebanon	(Hmede and Kassem 2019)
Serratia marcescens	Partial +	Argentina	(Merkier et al. 2013)
Enterobacter aerogenes	Partial +	Croatia	(Bedenić et al. 2018)
Salmonella enterica	+	USA, Europe, China,	(Elbediwi et al. 2020; Kuleshov et al. 2021; Azizov et
		Russia	al. 2019)
Escherichia coli	Partial +	Pakistan, USA, Europe	(Barlaam et al. 2019; Lv et al. 2018)

Table 1 shows the Antimicrobial Spectrum of Colistin & its Resistance Pattern throughout the world.

A. Intrinsic Resistance Mechanisms

In *P. mirabilis* and *S. marcesens*, resistance to Polymyxins occurs intrinsically by the genetic modification of their LPS. This mechanism is linked by the expression of the arnBCADTEF operon and eptB gene (Lin et al. 2014). This expression adds 4amino-4-deoxy-L-arabinose (L-Ara4N) and Phosphoethanolamine (pEtN) to the LPS. It is reported that the LPS of P. mirabilis contains L-Ara4N and the genome contains the *eptC* gene (Aquilini et al. 2014). While in *S. marcesens, arnB, and arnC* mutations lead to resistance. This modification increases the charge on LPS, which decreases Colistin's affinity for LPS (Olaitan, Morand, and Rolain 2014).

B. Acquired Resistance Mechanisms:

i. Chromosomal modification of PmrAB and PhoPQ Two-Component System

Resistance chromosomal occurs by modifications that are like that of bacteria that are naturally resistant to Colistin. The most common mechanism of resistance includes modifications of the LPS membrane via the addition of cationic groups. The PmrAB and PhoPQ Two-Component System controls the addition of cationic groups to the LPS membrane. The PmrCAB Operon encodes 3 proteins i.e. the *pEtN* response regulator *PmrA*,

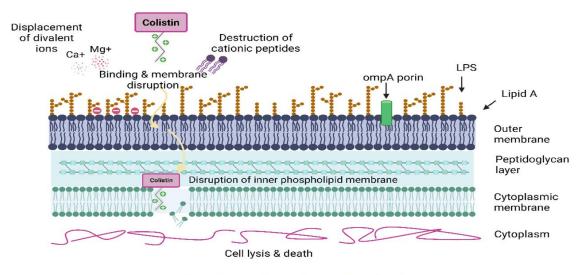
sensor kinase enzyme PmrAB, and Phosphotransferase *PmrC*. The *PmrA* and PmrB are activated by various environmental stimuli like low pH (5.5), ferric (Fe³⁺), and Macrophage Phagosome Aluminum (Al³⁺) (Zhou et al. 2001). Mutations in *PmrA and PmrB genes* lead to Col-R in K. pneumoniae, Enterobacter aerogenes, and Salmonella Enterica (Gunn 2008).

ii. CrrAB Two-Component System

It is a Two-Component Regulatory system that changes the *PmrAB* system. The Glycosyltransferase enzyme arises from the mutation in the CrrB part of the Two-System, Component which causes modification of the outer LPS membrane. Col-R results from six amino acid substitutions of the Two-Component CrrB protein. Mutations of the CrrB gene system are caused by overexpression of CrrC, this shows that CrrAB and PmrAB Two-Component System are indirectly linked via CrrC. This causes increased activation of proteins by autophosphorylation which leads to Col-R (Cheng et al. 2016).

iii. Mutation in LPS Synthesis Gene

LPS synthesis is controlled by 3 genes i.e., *ramA*, *romA*, and *ramR*, where *ramA* and *romA* are regulated by the *ramR* gene. Mutations in these genes cause the modification of the lipid A component of



Mechanism of Action of Colistin

Figure 1 shows colistin binding to lipid A of the bacterial outer membrane, disrupting cationic peptides by displacing divalent ions. In the next step, colistin further disrupts the inner phospholipid membrane by fixing its fatty acid-containing chain/tail, eventually resulting in loss of membrane integrity, cell lysis, and death.

the LPS membrane of GNB. This modification leads to the loss of binding of Colistin to the LPS membrane of bacteria, thereby causing resistance (De Majumdar et al. 2015).

iv. Role of Capsule

In certain bacterial species, the formation of Capsule on the outer surface of bacterial cell wall leads to less affinity of antibiotics to the bacteria (Campos et al. 2004). Capsule acts as a Protective layer against antibiotics in bacteria. The intensity of resistance depends on the number of layers of the Capsule. The more layers, the greater the resistance. Nowadays, Certain bacterial species have formed a capsule around them to become resistant to Colistin (Llobet, Tomas, and Bengoechea 2008).

v. Role of Efflux Pumps

It is seen that *KpnEF*, *AcrAB*, *and Sap* protein systems are involved in the activation of efflux pumps in certain bacterial species. A mutation in *KpnEF* leads to increased susceptibility and decreases the MIC of Colistin. The increased activation of Efflux pumps increases the resistance against colistin (Srinivasan and Rajamohan 2013).

vi. Plasmid-Mediated Resistance

Mobile Colistin Resistance (MCR) genes are present in the plasmid genetic material of bacteria. These plasmids are transferred horizontally to other bacteria causing resistance against Colistin to spread. Out of all, the *mcr 1* gene is majorly responsible for the development of resistance against Colistin. *Mcr* genes cause changes in membrane receptors prone to Colistin binding, which in turn increases Col-R (Liu et al. 2016).

5. Detection Methods of Resistance in Colistin

Detection of Col-R is important for managing infections. Susceptibility testing is required to sort out the empirical therapy which is to be followed by the targeted therapy. Challenges have appeared due to the prevalence of colistin-

and Handy rapid resistant strains. methods are required for the diagnosis in laboratories (Kar et al. 2021). Phenotypic and genotypic methods are the cornerstones for determining the prevalent Col-R. They serve as monitoring rules to sway Col-R (Carroll et al. 2019). Table 2 shows the detection techniques used to detect the resistance against Colistin in bacterial species, along with their principles and brief details.

a. Disk Pre-diffusion Method

The disk diffusion method is a classical antimicrobial method to detect susceptibility. It is based on the principle of diffusion in which the antibiotic from the antibiotic disk diffuses outwards radially and creates a zone of inhibition. This technique is carried out in an agar medium inoculated with bacteria. A paper disk impregnated with the known concentration of colistin is placed on the agar. This method requires 18-24 hours of incubation. (Gounden et al. 2009)

b. Rapid NP Test

Rapid NP Test is an easy and cheap method for the detection of polymyxin resistance and susceptibility. It has a major role in the rapid assortment of empirical treatments based on resistance and susceptibility. AlamarBlue and PrestoBlue also known as resazurin (7-hydroxy-3Hphenoxazin-3 one 10-oxide) are used to grow bacteria. The medium contains a specified concentration of colistin. Bromocresol purple, a pH indicator is used. It changes its color when the medium becomes more alkaline. The color change occurs due to the metabolic activity of the cells which reduces resazurin to resorufin, hence changing the color of the medium to pink. This method detects polymyxin resistance in 3 to 4 hours, which makes it faster than other laboratory techniques. (Bouvier et al. 2021)

c. Inhibition of MCR-1 Activity

Polymixin resistance has been reported to be encountered due to mutations in the MCR-1 gene. Phosphoethanolamine transferases are encoded by MCR genes. It reduces the negative charge on LPS by adding Phosphoethanolamine to lipid A moiety. It interferes with the binding of colistin to bacterial membranes, eventually causing polymyxin resistance. Zinc is required for MCR activity. In this method, polymyxin resistance was decreased by decreasing the concentration of metalloenzyme i.e., Zn by adding EDTA. metalloenzyme Another chelator Dipicolinic acid (DA) is also used for mcr-1 screening. These scavenge the metal particles which aids in *mcr* activity (Esposito et al. 2017).

d. Loop-Mediated Isothermal Amplification

This is also a robust isothermal technique that requires 30 minutes to 1 hour to amplify nucleic acids. It acquires Bst Polymerase mediates which the displacement of DNA strands and DNA auto cycling. This technique involves 4-6 primers which pick out 6-8 attacking regions for amplification in targeted DNA. It is a two-step procedure, in which the first step involves amplification and cycling whereas strand elongation and recycling are performed in the second step (Panno et al. 2020).

e. MIC Strip Colistin

It is a quantitative assay using paper strips to determine minimum inhibitory concentration. The paper strip is impregnated with a defined concentration gradient of colistin. This MIC test strip is placed on an inoculated agar plate. The results are obtained after 18 hours or more of incubation, and the point of intersection of the inhibitory ellipse with the MIC test strip is noticed.

Table 2 shows the detection techniques used to detect Col-R in various strains of Bacteria

Name	Principal	Sample Used	Results	References
Screening of colistin- containing Broth for Polymyxin Resistant Isolates	Broth medium containing Colistin is screened for growth of gram-negative isolates. Daptomycin & Amphotericin B are also added to prevent the growth of Gram-positive bacteria and fungi respectively.	Isolates of GNB (Suspected for polymyxin resistance) are used	Growth of GNB & increased MIC of Polymyxins than usual show resistance to polymyxins	(Nordmann, Jayol, and Poirel 2016b, 2016a)
Disk Pre-diffusio n method	By agar dilution method, the MICs & zone of inhibition of Colistin are observed	Samples of bacterial isolates from the gut, mesenteric lymph nodes & feces	MIC> 2µg/ml or smaller zones of inhibition indicates resistance	(Boyen et al. 2010)
Rapid NP Polymyxin test for Enterobacteriaceae	The test depends on the pH of the sample. Acid production by bacteria changes the color of the indicator	Blood sample	Color change of indicator within 2 hours.	(Nordmann, Jayol, and Poirel 2016a)
Micromax Assay for A. baumannii	Incubation of bacteria in the presence of Colistin	BodyfluidscontainingA.baumanniistrain	Detection of DNA and cell wall fragments by Fluorescence Microscopy	(Tamayo et al. 2013)
Matrix Assisted Laser Desorption Ionization Time- of-Flight Mass Spectroscopy (MALDI-TOF-MS)	Observing the peaks for Lipid A in the membrane of bacteria. Particularly for the detection of <i>mcr-positive</i> resistant strains	Isolates of polymyxin- resistant <i>E. Coli</i>	Additional peaks at 1919.2 m/z for all polymyxin-resistant strains & 1821 m/z for all <i>mcr-positive</i> strains	(Larrouy-Maumus et al. 2016; Dortet et al. 2018)
Inhibition of MCR-1 Activity	<i>MCR-1</i> protein is inhibited either by deprivation of Zn, by addition of Dipicolinic Acid (DPA), or by EDTA	Polymyxin- resistant strains isolated from body fluids	Decrease in MIC of Colistin against resistant strains	(Hinchliffe et al. 2017; Coppi et al. 2018; Esposito et al. 2017)
UMIC Colistine/ MIC Strip Colistin	Test kit containing different conc. Of Colistin to determine susceptibility	Bacterial suspension	Determination of MIC of Colistin against the bacteria	(Bardet et al. 2019)
Loop-Mediated Isothermal Amplification (LAMP)	Amplification of <i>mcr-1</i> genes using DNA polymerase with continuous monitoring by assay	Bacterial sample	more sensitive & rapid amplification of <i>mcr-1</i> gene than PCR	(Zou et al. 2017)
MicroScan/ Vitek 2	It's an automated system based on fluorometry to detect <i>mcr-1-tested</i> isolates	Manually inoculated bacteria on trays	Presence of <i>mcr-1</i> positive isolates by fluorometry	(S.Y. Lee et al. 2013)

6. Preventative Measures

Col-R has become a great threat to our healthcare system. It is used as the last resort for drug-resistant infections. Frequent use of colistin, mutation of mcr and intrinsic genes and proteins, duration of treatment, and inappropriate dosing and dosing intervals are some of the factors contributing to Col-R. Researchers are still exploring ways to combat Col-R (Sharma et al. 2022). Fluopsin C, a metal-containing antibiotic, and a secondary metabolite, is found to be effective against Grampositive, Gram-negative, and drugresistant bacteria. Terrein, another purified metabolite, shows significant antimicrobial activities against S. aureus, A. hydrophila, E. faecalis, and other microbes. Therefore, we can suggest that after clinical approval these molecules could be used as potential

drugs against colistin-resistant bacteria (Cardozo et al. 2013; Pourhajibagher et al. 2017). Combinatorial therapy is another approach to encountering Col-R. Combination of colistin with Tigecycline (Sheng et al. 2011), Meropenem (C.-H. Lee et al. 2008), Gentamicin, Fosfomycin (Santimaleeworagun al. 2011), et Vancomycin (Hornsey and Wareham 2011), and Rifampicin (Pachón-Ibánez et al. 2010) are reported to be effective against colistin-resistant bacteria. Repurposing drugs is another strategy to overcome this issue. PFK-158 is an antitumor drug (Pourhajibagher et al. 2017). It has been repurposed against colistin-resistant Enterobacteriaceae, for which it showed pharmacodynamic synergism in combination with colistin. Niclosamide is an anthelmintic and non-antibiotic drug

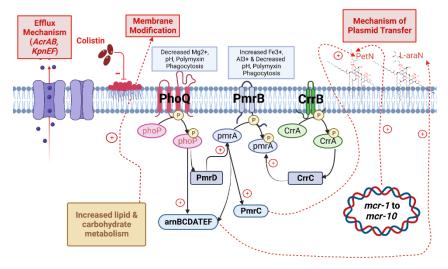


Figure 2 shows resistance mechanisms against Colistin in Gram-Negative Bacteria. (AcrAB, KpnEF activates the efflux mechanisms, modifications in membrane inhibits Colistin binding, PhoPQ, PmrAB, and CrrAB Two-Component Systems inhibits the uptake of Colistin into the bacterial cell and transfer of mcr gene through plasmids which modifies the structure of lipid A in the membrane which inhibits drug binding).

that in combination with colistin can be used against colistin-resistant Gramnegative bacillary infections, and its activity has been assured (Domalaon et al. 2019). Ellipticine and its analogs are reported as an anticancer agent. It is a natural alkaloid. It is a potent molecule against colistin-resistant E. coli (Stiborová et al. 2001). AgNPs have bactericidal and inhibitory activity. Conjugation of Colistin and AgNPs could enhance the antimicrobial cell activity and biocompatibility. Col-AgNPs and AgNPs are biocompatible with human red blood cells and renal cells (Sharma et al. 2022). Col-AgNPs have increased activity against GNB i.e., Escherichia coli, Klebsiella pneumonia, and Pseudomonas aeruginosa (Poowadon Muenraya et al. 2022b). CRISPR/Cas9 approach could be used to delete multiple gene copies by using only one *sgRNA*. It is used to remove plasmids having the MCR-1 gene in a stepwise manner simultaneously or remove multiple plasmids in one step (P. Wang et al. 2019). Caution should be taken to prevent unwanted recombination events. Combinations of phage Phab24 with colistin provoked changes in envelope

architecture which overcome the resistance in colistin-resistant Acinetobacter baumannii. At neutral pH i.e., at pH 7, phage particles were observed to be negatively charged, at the same pH colistin-resistant bacteria had less negative zeta potentials, diminuendo negative surface charge of colistin-resistant cells led to a decrease in the electrostatic repulsion between the bacteria and phage, which promoted phage adherence. This strategy was called Phase Therapy. Photodynamic therapy in combination with colistin showed a high synergetic effect against A. baumannii. Expression of the ompA gene after PDT in A. baumannii helps in more penetration of antibiotics (P. Muenraya et al. 2022a).

Table 3 shows a detailed map for preventative and countermeasures. Moreover, newer drug molecules that are in the pipeline such as QPX7728 which is a cyclic boronic acid analog might be used in combination with colistin in order to counteract the resistance issue. The new drug molecule was found to be effective in multidrug-resistant gram-negative infections when used in combination with other anti-bacterial agents (Hecker et al. 2020; Shareef et al. 2023).

Table 3: Preventive measures used against Colistin resistance

Approach	Molecules/Drugs	Targeted Bacteria/Pathogens	Findings/Effectiveness	References
Metal-Containing Antibiotics	Fluopsin C	Gram-positive, Gram-negative, and drug-resistant bacteria	Effective against colistin-resistant bacteria. Potential future drug after clinical approval.	(Cardozo et al. 2013; Pourhajibagher et al. 2017)
	Terrein	S. aureus, A. hydrophila, E. faecalis, and other microbes	Significantly antimicrobial against various bacteria. Potential future drug after clinical approval.	(Cardozo et al. 2013; Pourhajibagher et al. 2017)
Combinatorial Therapy	Colistin + Tigecycline	Colistin-resistant bacteria	Reported effectiveness against colistin- resistant strains.	(Sheng et al. 2011)
	Colistin + Meropenem	Colistin-resistant bacteria	Demonstrated efficacy against colistin- resistant strains.	(CH. Lee et al. 2008)
	Colistin + Gentamicin, Fosfomycin	Colistin-resistant bacteria	The combination is reported to be effective against colistin-resistant strains.	(Santimaleeworagun et al. 2011)
	Colistin + Vancomycin	Colistin-resistant bacteria	Reported effectiveness against colistin- resistant strains.	(Hornsey and Wareham 2011)
	Colistin + Rifampicin	Colistin-resistant bacteria	Demonstrated efficacy against colistin- resistant strains.	(Pachón-Ibánez et al. 2010)
Repurposing Drugs	PFK-158	Colistin-resistant Enterobacteriaceae	Repurposed antitumor drug showing synergism with colistin.	(Pourhajibagher et al. 2017)
	Niclosamide	Colistin-resistant Gram-negative bacillary infections	Non-antibiotic drug repurposed in combination with colistin against colistin- resistant infections. Assured activity.	(Domalaon et al. 2019)
	Ellipticine and its analogs	E. coli	Natural alkaloid with potent activity against colistin-resistant <i>E. coli</i> .	(Stiborová et al. 2001)
Nanoparticle-based Approach	Col-AgNPs	GNB (E. coli, Klebsiella pneumonia, Pseudomonas aeruginosa)	Enhanced antimicrobial activity and biocompatibility. Increased activity against GNB.	(Poowadon Muenraya et al. 2022b)
	AgNPs	Various strains	Bactericidal and inhibitory activity.	[76]
Genetic Approaches	CRISPR/Cas9	Deletion of <i>MCR-1</i> gene and plasmids containing it	Used for stepwise or simultaneous removal of multiple plasmids with the <i>MCR-1</i> gene. Caution is needed to prevent unwanted recombination events.	(P. Wang et al. 2019)
Phage-based Strategies	Phage Phab24 + Colistin	Acinetobacter baumannii (colistin-resistant)	Provoked changes in envelope architecture, overcoming resistance. Phase Therapy involves changes in charge promoting phage adherence.	(P. Muenraya et al. 2022a)
	Photodynamic therapy + Colistin	A. baumannii	High synergistic effect. <i>OmpA gene</i> expression aids antibiotic penetration after photodynamic therapy.	(P. Muenraya et al. 2022a)

7. Challenges and Future Implications Being a major challenge, Col-R requires multidisciplinary research, appropriate surveillance, and close monitoring to divulge the causes and rate of spread of resistant genes. Colistin binds to Lipid A of LPS and dissolves bacterial outer membrane. Free LPS is released after the death of GNB which is reported to cause endotoxemia (Jansen et al. 2022). Colistin is abducted by the free LPS, which hinders Colistin's activity. To prevent this issue, scientists have been working on creating a supramolecular trap by using subnanometer gold metal sheets (Guo et al. 2022). Lately, it has been found SAuM seals off lipid A of free LPS, hence, interceding the interaction between colistin and free LPS. This has helped in increasing the anti-bacterial activity of colistin at low doses which in turn has decreased endotoxin-induced sepsis and bacteremia. Therefore, the supramolecular trap is a possible strategy to circumvent Col-R in the future (F.H. Liao et al. 2020). More robust, rapid, and user-oriented methods are required to determine new resistant bacteria against colistin. These methods can aid in the devising of suitable, less toxic, and potent drugs. Justified use of colistin should be observed to avoid pan-resistant strains in the future.

8. Conclusion

Col-R is an emerging dilemma globally. The injudicious use of colistin in agriculture, animals, aquaculture, and human medicine is accentuating the resistance in GNB. As Colistin is the last resort for gram-negative infections it should be recommended on prescription only, under strict supervision. The bacteria have intrinsic resistance mechanisms which include LPS genetic modification and acquired resistance

mechanisms which constitute resistance in *PmrAB* and *PhoPQ*, which helps in acquiring the cationic group in LPS. Other mutations include mutations in the CrrAB and ramA genes which also alter the configuration of the LPS membrane of bacteria. Mutation in *KpnEF*, which is involved in the activation of efflux pumps, formation of capsules, and plasma-mediated mcr gene resistance is also part of the acquired bacterial resistance mechanism against colistin. Early appropriate therapies are deduced through colistin susceptibility tests, and various antimicrobial susceptibility tests are discussed above, in this study. Furthermore, expeditious vigorous, and detection methods are required to study the resistance patterns clearly and critically in the bacteria colistin. treated with In ongoing epidemiological circumstances, Col-R is being combated with alternative antibiotics and combinatorial therapies which too can pose resistance shortly. Controlled and strict use of colistin might help in overcoming the prevalent Col-R. The findings of the articles may act as a surrogate for devising better ways in AMS programs to reduce the emergence of AMR against colistin.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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Consent Forms NA

Data Availability

All the raw data related to this study is available with the authors.

Authors' Contribution

MUS designed the study, and MUS, US, and LB wrote the manuscript. US and MUS proofread the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

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