

***FemA* based drug design for potentiation of β -lactam antibiotics
against Methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus***

*A thesis submitted in fulfillment
of the requirement for the award of the degree of*

**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN
BIOTECHNOLOGY**



THAPAR INSTITUTE
OF ENGINEERING & TECHNOLOGY
(Deemed to be University)

Submitted By

DIVYA SINGHAL

(Reg. No. 900900020)

Under the supervision of

Dr. SANJAI SAXENA

Professor

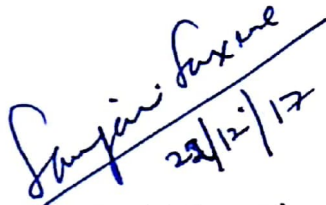
Department of Biotechnology

Thapar Institute of Engineering and Technology, Patiala-147004, Punjab

December, 2017

Certificate

It is hereby certified that the thesis "***FemA* based drug design for potentiation of β -lactam antibiotics against Methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus***" which is submitted by **Mrs. Divya Singhal (Regd. No. 900900020)**, in fulfillment of the requirement for the award of the degree of **Doctor of Philosophy** in the Department of Biotechnology, Thapar Institute of Engineering and Technology (Deemed University), Patiala, Punjab, India, is a record of the candidate's own independent and original research work carried out by her under my supervision and guidance. The matter embodied in this thesis has not been submitted in part or full to any other University or Institute for the award of any degree in India or abroad.

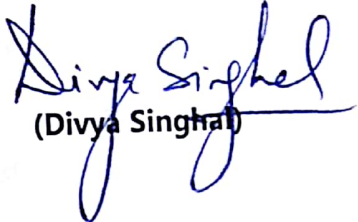

29/12/17

(Prof. Sanjai Saxena)
Supervisor
Department of Biotechnology
Thapar Institute of Engineering and Technology,
Patiala

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that the work which is being presented in the thesis "**FemA based drug design for potentiation of β -lactam antibiotics against Methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus***" submitted by me for the award of the degree of **Doctor of Philosophy** in the Department of Biotechnology, Thapar Institute of Engineering and Technology, Patiala, is true and original record of my own independent and original research work carried out under the kind supervision of Prof. Sanjai Saxena, Department of Biotechnology, Thapar Institute of Engineering and Technology (Deemed University), Patiala, India. The matter embodied in this thesis has not been submitted in part or full to any other University or Institute for the award of any degree in India or abroad.

Date: **23rd December, 2017**


(Divya Singh)

Acknowledgement

In pursuit of this academic endeavour, I feel that I have been singularly fortunate because inspiration, guidance, direction, cooperation, love and care- all came in my way in abundance and it seems almost an impossible task for me to acknowledge the same in adequate term. With profound sense of indebtedness and heartfelt gratitude, I thank **Dr. Sanjai Saxena**, Professor, Department of Biotechnology (DBT), Thapar Institute of Engineering and Technology (TIET) Deemed University, Patiala, Punjab (Pb) who guided and inspired me in pursuance of this work. His association with this endeavour of mine will remain a beacon light to me throughout my life. I sincerely thank him for making me a better person, guiding me and improving silliest of my mistakes. His presence was always there whenever I needed him whether it was professional or personal life.

My sincere gratitude to visionary director of TIET, **Prof. (Dr.) Prakash Gopalan**, for providing advanced infrastructure and excellent research environment. I thank **Prof. (Dr.) O. P. Pandey**, Dean, Research and Sponsored Projects, **Prof. (Dr.) Maneek Kumar**, Dean, Student affairs and **Prof. (Dr.) Ajay Batish**, Dean, Partnerships and Accreditations, TIET, Patiala for their precious guidance and constant motivation.

Constructive suggestions and critical remarks of **Prof. (Dr.) Moushmi Ghosh**, Head, DBT, **Prof. (Dr.) N. Tejo Prakash**, Head, School of energy and Environment, **Dr. Manmohan Chibber**, Associate professor, School of Chemistry and Biochemistry and **Dr. Manoj Baranwal**, Associate Professor, DBT, TIET, towards amelioration of this work has been of immense help in successfully achieving the objectives. I am highly obliged to them for their kind support in carrying out present research work.

A special thanks to **Dr. Manju Ananad**, **Dr. Vikas Handa**, **Dr. Siddharth Sharma**, **Dr. Anita Rajor** and **Dr. Ranjna Parkash** faculty members of TIET for their suggestions and constant encouragement.

A deep sense of gratitude to **Dr. Sudhir Kumar**, Professor Department of Molecular Biology, Biotechnology and Bioinformatics, College of Basic Sciences and Humanities, Chaudhary Charan Singh Haryana Agricultural University, Hisar who has been a source of

inspiration for me. It's because of you sir that I have chosen research as a carrier option. I sincerely thank you for showing me the path.

I am thankful to Principal Scientist **Dr. Ashok Kumar Mohanty**, Department of Biotechnology, NDRI, for providing me with an opportunity to work in his lab at National Dairy Research Institute, Karnal. I am thankful to **Dr. Sudershan Kumar** and **Ms. Shveta Bathla**, NDRI, Karnal for their kind cooperation in nLC-MS analysis.

I am highly indebted to **Dr. R. K. Jethi**, Retd. Professor, Department of Biotechnology, Panjab University, Chandigarh, and **Mrs. Gayatri Kochar**, Assistant Professor, Ambala College of Engg. Ambala, for their valuable suggestions on various aspects of biotechnology.

I owe my heartfelt thank to **Mr. Inderjit Yadav**, Assistant Professor, School of Agricultural Biotechnology, Punjab Agricultural University, Ludhiana for his kind guidance and cooperation in docking studies. I also thanks to **Dr. Saurabh Gupta** and **Miss. Jashan Narwan**, Assistant Professor, Department of Microbiology, Mata Gujri College, Fatehgarh Sahib and **Miss Charu Bahl**, Research scholar, Department of Biotechnology, TU, Patiala in helping me in PCR studies.

I also want to thank my labmates **Dr. Poonam Bhatia**, **Dr. Sumit Jaiswal**, **Dr. Vineet Meshram**, **Dr. Neha Kapoor**, **Mr. Vagesh Dwibedi**, **Dr. Mahiti**, and **Dr. Noorpreet** for inspiring discussions while designing and planning experimental protocols and for providing a nice atmosphere in the lab.

A special thanks to **Mr. Ram Naval**, **Mr. Surinder Pal** and other lab staff members of DBT, TIET without whom's help many experiments would not be have been possible. I also thank those who could not find a separate name but helped me directly or indirectly.

I am especially indebted to my senior, **Dr. Charu Mutreja**, for her valuable guidance.

My special thanks to **Miss Parul Gulati**, **Mrs. Gurpreet**, Ph.D scholars, TIET, patiala and **Dr. Ritu Gupta** Professor, PU, Chandigarh and **Dr. Parul Singla** for their constant love, cooperation and help. I thank them for supporting me in thick and thin phases of my life. I thank them all for wonderful moments and great company.

I sincerely thank Amma and Baba (**Shri Devendra Kumar Saxena** and **Smt. Savita Saxena**) and **Mrs. Merry Saxena** for their love, warmth and care. Love to my sister **Mahek**. I thank them all for making me feel like home.

I would like to thank my husband **Dr. Nitin Mittal**, Associate Professor, Department of ECE, Chandigarh University, Gharuan and my in-laws for their motivation, co-operation and

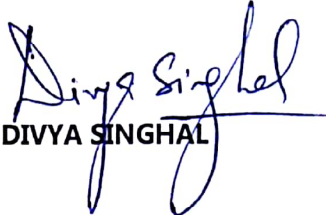
moral support. I would never be able to complete this work without their support. Above all, it's my parents, brother and sister who encouraged me to complete my PhD besides all odds and troughs of life. I owe my personal reckoning of gratitude and benevolence to them for their endless love, care, patience, inspiration, encouragement, motivation and constant driving force which has enabled me to complete my work.

Last but not least I want to thank from bottom of my heart to my little princess "**Devanshi**" for her endless patience that enabled me to complete my doctoral degree.

Thanks to almighty for bestowing blessings on me.

Date: 23rd December, 2017

Place: Patiala


DIVYA SINGHAL

Dedicated

to

My Family

Publications

1. Singhal D. and Saxena S. (2015): Screening and toxicity analysis of catechin isomers against FemA protein. *Indian journal of pharmaceutical sciences*, 77(6): 758. (PMCID: PMC4778237).
2. Singhal D. and Saxena, S., (2017): Catechin gallate a promising resistance modifying candidate to potentiate β -lactam antibiotics to overcome resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Current Medicine Research and Practice*, 7:224–228.
3. Singhal D., and Saxena S Identification Method of and aureus. Annual Research and Review in Biology, (Paper in Communication).

Table of Contents

- *List of tables* i-ii
- *List of figures* iii-vi
- *Executive Summary*

Sr. No.	Chapter	Page No.
1.	Introduction	1-9
2.	Present approach and Hypothesis	10-11
2.1	Hypothesis	10
2.2	Objective	10-11
3.	Review of Literature	12-31
3.1	Pathogenicity of <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	12
3.1.1	Virulence Determinants	12
3.2	Target Sites for Antibiotics	14
3.2.1.	Cell wall Synthesis Inhibitors	14
3.2.2.	Translation Inhibitors	15
3.2.3.	DNA Synthesis Inhibitors	16
3.3	Resistance Mechanism of MRSA	17
3.4	Resistance Modifying Agents (MA's)	18
3.4.1	Acting on modified target site of antimicrobial agents	18
3.4.2	As membrane permeabilizing agents	18
3.4.3	Inhibitors of enzymes that inactivate antibiotics	19
3.4.4	Inhibitors of efflux pumps	19
3.5	Mechanism of Modulating Methicillin Resistance	20
3.6	Computational Methods in Drug Design	21

3.7	Methods of Determining Resistance	25
3.7.1.	Detection of genes	25
3.7.2.	MIC Assay	26
3.7.3.	Checkerboard and FIC Index	28
3.7.4.	Time kill curve	29
3.8	Analytical Techniques	30
3.8.1.	High-Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC)	30
3.8.2.	Mass Spectrometry (MS)	31
4	MATERIALS AND METHODS	33-46
4.1	Structure Databases	33
4.2.	Identifications of Binding Sites	33
4.2.1	SiteHound	33
4.2.2.	QsiteFinder	33
4.2.3.	Pocket Finder	34
4.2.4	CASTp (Computed atlas of surface topography of proteins)	34
4.3	Docking Tools	34
4.3.1	Autodock Vina	34
4.3.2	Dock	35
4.4	<i>In silico</i> Interaction and Toxicity Studies	36
4.4.1	Toxicological studies	36
4.4.2.	Lipinski filters	36
4.5	Culture repository	37
4.5.1	Procurement of test isolates	37
4.5.2	Maintenance of cultures	37

4.5.3	Preparation of 0.5 McFarland turbidity standard (CLSI, 1997)	37
4.5.4:	Growth curve studies of test isolate	38
4.6	<i>mecA</i> and <i>femA</i> characterization of the test isolates	39
4.6.1	Isolation of bacterial genomic DNA	39
4.6.2	PCR for the detection of <i>mec A</i> and <i>femA</i>	40
4.7	<i>In vitro</i> susceptibility studies of <i>S. aureus</i> isolates	41
4.7.1	<i>In vitro</i> microbroth dilution assay: determination of MIC	41
4.7.2	Checkerboard Assay and FIC Index	42
4.7.3	Time Kill Assay of Synergistic Formulations	45
4.8	Evaluation of functional Expression of <i>FemA</i> protein	45
4.8.1	Peptidoglycan (PGN) cell wall extraction	45
4.8.2	Derivatization of Samples	46
4.8.3	LC-MS Analysis	47
5.	Results	48-87
5.1	Structure Databases	48
5.2.	Identification of Binding Sites	53
5.2.1.	SiteHound	53
5.2.2.	Q-SiteFinder	54
5.2.3.	PocketFinder	55
5.2.4.	CASTp	56
5.3.	Docking Tools	57
5.3.1	AutoDock Vina	57
5.3.2.	Dock	58
5.4	Interaction and Toxicity studies	59

5.4.2	Toxicological studies	61
5.4.3	Lipinski filters	62
5.5	Test Cultures	63
5.5.1	Growth curve studies of test isolates	63
5.6	<i>mecA</i> and <i>femA</i> characterization of the test isolates	64
5.7	Evaluation of microbial activity of <i>S. aureus</i> isolates	65
5.7.1	<i>In vitro</i> microbroth dilution assay: determination of MIC	65
5.7.2	Checkerboard : FIC INDEX Assay	67
5.7.3	Time Kill Curve	76
5.8	Evaluation of <i>FemA</i> protein functional Expression	81
5.8.1	nLC-MS	81
6	Discussion	88-99
7	Conclusion	100
8	Bibliography	101-129
9	Appendix	130-139

List of Table

Table No.	Table Title	Page No.
Materials and Methods		
4.8.2.1	nLC-MS samples with nLC-Ms code and their description	47
Results		
5.1	Summary of Catechin isomers	51-52
5.2	Details of active sites in L-domain as predicted by SiteHound tool	53
5.3	Details of active sites in L-domain as predicted by Q-SiteFinder tool	54
5.4	Details of active sites in L-domain as predicted by PocketFinder tool	55
5.5	Details of active sites in L-domain as predicted by CASTp tool	56
5.6	Results predicted by AutoDock Vina	57
5.7.	Results predicted by Dock	58
5.8	Toxicity results predicted by Osiris	61
5.9	Lipinski results	62
5.10.	MIC of <i>S. aureus</i> all three strains w.r.t. antibiotic oxacillin, penicillin and test compound CG	67
5.11	FIC INDEX of <i>S. aureus</i> NCTC 6571 with antibiotic oxacillin and test compound CG	69
5.12	FIC INDEX of <i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 737 with antibiotic oxacillin and test compound CG	70
5.13	FIC INDEX of <i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 96 with antibiotic oxacillin and test compound CG	71
5.14	FIC INDEX of <i>S. aureus</i> NCTC 6571 with antibiotic penicillin and test compound CG	72
5.15	FIC INDEX of <i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 737 with antibiotic penicillin and test compound CG	73
5.16	FIC INDEX of <i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 96 with antibiotic penicillin and test compound CG	74
5. 17.	Summary of FIC Values for all three strains <i>S. aureus</i> for antibiotic oxacillin (O) and penicillin (P) with Catechin Gallate (CG)	75

5.18	Comparative kill kinetics of <i>S. aureus</i> NCTC 6571 with absence of any antibiotic, in presence of oxacillin, CG and formulation of oxacillin and CG	77
5.19	Comparative kill kinetics of <i>S. aureus</i> NCTC 6571 with absence of any antibiotic, in presence of penicillin, CG and formulation of penicillin and CG	77
5.20	Comparative kill kinetics of <i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 737 with absence of any antibiotic, in presence of oxacillin, CG and formulation of oxacillin and CG	78
5.21	Comparative kill kinetics of <i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 96 with absence of any antibiotic, in presence of oxacillin, CG and formulation of oxacillin and CG	78
5.22	nLC-MS Results Summary (APPENDIX)	135

List of Figures

Fig. No.	Figure Legend	Page No.
Introduction		
1.1	2D Structure of β -lactam antibiotics	2
1.2.	2D Structure of 5 th generation of β lactam antibiotics and Texiobactin	5
1.3.	2D structures of resistance modifying agents of β -lactamase producing MRSA	5
1.4.	Schematic representation of an idealized cell-wall peptidoglycan of <i>S. aureus</i> and its <i>fem</i> -deletion mutants.	7
1.5.	2D structures of resistance modifying agents of β -lactam antibiotics from plants	9
Review of Literature		
3.1.1.1.	Pathogenicity of <i>S. aureus</i> , with structural and secreted products	13
3.6.1	Citation percentage of most common docking programs period	23
3.6.2.	Evolution of the number of citations/year for the 7 most cited protein-ligand docking programs over the period 2001-2011.	23
Materials and Methods		
4.1	Docking grid prepared by AutoDock Vina	35
4.2	Config File (APPENDIX)	130
4.3	INSPH File (APPENDIX)	130
4.4	OUTSPH File (APPENDIX)	130-132
4.5.	Showsph.in File (APPENDIX)	132
4.6.	Showbox.in File (APPENDIX)	133
4.7.	Grid.in File (APPENDIX)	133
4.7.1	Microtitre plate template for <i>in vitro</i> microbroth dilution assay for determination of MIC ₄₂	
4.7.2	Microtitre plate template for checkerboard assay for determination of FIC	44

4.8.	Rigid.in File (APPENDIX)	134
------	--------------------------	-----

Results

5.1	Structure of <i>S.aureus</i> in two domains (a) Cartoon View (b) Surface View having L-shaped (white) substrate binding domain	49
5.2	<i>S. aureus FemA</i> protein sequence and secondary structure in three domains	50
5.3	Active sites predicted by SiteHound tool	53
5.4	Active sites predicted by Q-SiteFinder tool	54
5.5	Active sites predicted by PocketFinder tool	55
5.6	Active sites predicted by CASTp tool	56
5.7	AutoDock Vina results: <i>FemA</i> protein complex with ligand Catechin Gallate and Catechin	59
5.8	UCSF Dock results: <i>FemA</i> protein complex with ligand Catechin Gallate	59
5.9	Interaction of Catechin Gallate with different residues of <i>FemA</i> protein given by LIGPLOT+ tool	60
5.10	Growth Curve of <i>S. aureus</i> strains	64
5.11	(a) Screening of staphylococcal isolates for the presence of <i>mecA</i> gene with 533 bp amplicon and (b) <i>femA</i> gene with 132 bp amplicon as a marker for methicillin resistance	65
5.12	Microbroth dilution results of <i>S. aureus</i> NCTC 6571, <i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 737 and <i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 96 with antibiotic Oxacillin	66
5.13	Microbroth dilution results of <i>S. aureus</i> NCTC 6571, <i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 737 and <i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 96 with antibiotic Penicillin	66
5.14	Microbroth dilution results of <i>S. aureus</i> NCTC 6571, <i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 737 and <i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 96 with test compound CG	66

5.15	Checkerboard result of <i>S. aureus</i> NCTC 6571 for five diff. conc. of antibiotic oxacillin with five different concentration of test compound (CG)	69
5.16	MIC of <i>S. aureus</i> NCTC 6571 with antibiotic oxacillin and test compound CG from checkerboard method	69
5.17.	Checkerboard result of <i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 737 for five diff. conc. of antibiotic oxacillin with five different concentration of test compound (CG)	70
5.18	MIC of <i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 737 with antibiotic oxacillin and test compound CG from checkerboard method	70
5.19	Checkerboard result of <i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 96 for five diff. conc. of antibiotic oxacillin with five different concentration of test compound (CG)	71
5.20	MIC of <i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 96 with antibiotic oxacillin and test compound CG from checkerboard method	71
5.21	Checkerboard result of <i>S. aureus</i> NCTC 6571 for five diff. conc. of antibiotic penicillin with five different concentration. of test compound (CG)	72
5.22	MIC of <i>S. aureus</i> NCTC 6571 with antibiotic penicillin and test compound CG from checkerboard method	72
5.23	Checkerboard result of <i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 737 for five diff. conc. of antibiotic penicillin with five different concentration of test compound (CG)	73
5.24	MIC of <i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 737 with antibiotic penicillin and test compound CG from checkerboard method	73
5.25	Checkerboard result of <i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 96 for five diff. conc. of antibiotic penicillin with five different concentration of test compound (CG)	74
5.26	MIC of <i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 96 with antibiotic penicillin and test compound CG from checkerboard method	74

5.27	Time Kill Curve of <i>S. aureus</i> NCTC 6571 alone, with oxacillin, with CG and synergistic FIC combination of oxacillin and CG	79
5.28	Time Kill Curve of <i>S. aureus</i> NCTC 6571 alone, with penicillin, with CG and synergistic FIC combination of penicillin and CG	79
5.29	Time Kill Curve of <i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 737 alone, with oxacillin, with CG and synergistic FIC combination of oxacillin and CG	80
5.30	Time Kill Curve of <i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 96 alone, with oxacillin, with CG and synergistic FIC combination of oxacillin and CG	81
5.31	TIC of <i>S.aureus</i> NCTC 6571	82
5.32	TIC of <i>S.aureus</i> NCTC 6571 in presence of oxacillin and CG	83
5.33	TIC of <i>S.aureus</i> NCTC 6571 in presence of penicillin and CG	83
5.34	TIC of <i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 737	84
5.35	TIC of <i>S. aureus</i> in presence of oxacillin and CG	84
5.36	TIC of <i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 96	85
5.37	TIC of <i>S.aureus</i> MTCC 96 in presence of oxacillin and CG	85
5.38	Comparison of Peak area (%) of <i>S.aureus</i> NCTC 6571 in absence and presence of antibiotics and test compound formulation	86
5.39	Comparison of Peak area (%) of <i>S.aureus</i> MTCC 737 in absence and presence of antibiotic and test compound formulation	86
5.40	Comparison of Peak area (%) of <i>S.aureus</i> MTCC 96 in absence and presence of antibiotic and test compound formulation	87

Discussion

6.1.	Correlation Matrix of Active Site Prediction Tool Results (APPENDIX)	136
------	--	-----

List of Symbols

Sr. No	Symbol	Symbol
1.	%	Percentage
2.	min	Minute
3.	≥	Equals to or greater than
4.	≤	Equals to or smaller than
5.	°	Degree
6.	°C	Degree celsius
7.	μg	Microgram
8.	μl	Microliter
9.	μm	Micrometer
10.	cm	Centimeter
11.	g	Gram
12.	h	Hour
13.	kDa	Kilo Dalton
14.	l	Litre
15.	M	Molar
16.	mA	Milliampere
17.	mg	Milligram
18.	R ²	Correlation Coefficient
19.	ml	Milliliter
20.	mm	Millimeter
21.	mM	Millimolar
22.	ng	Nanogram
23.	nm	Nnanometer
24.	mAU	Milli Absorbance Unit
25.	rpm	Revolutions per minute
26.	s	Second
27.	U	Unit (activity)
28.	v	Volume
29.	v/v	Volume by volume
30.	~	Approximately
31.	w/v	Weight by volume
32.	μg /ml	Microgram per milligram
33.	μM	Micromolar
34.	U/mg	Units per milligram (Specific activity)
35.	U/ml	Units per milliliter
36.	ng/μl	Nanograms per microliter
37.	bp	Base pair
38.	α	Alpha
39.	β	Beta
40.	γ	Gamma
41.	±	Plus minus
42.	μl/ml	Microlitre per millilitre
43.	μM	Micromolar
44.	g/l	Gram per litre
45.	mg/l	Milligrams per litre

46. mg/ml
47. OD

Milligrams per millilitre
Optical density

List of Abbreviations

Sr. No.	Abbreviations	Full Form
1.	+ve HAP	Gram Positive Hospital Acquired Pneumonia
2.	2D- NMR	2D- Nuclear Magnetic Resonance Spectroscopy
3.	AAC	Acetyl Transferase
4.	ABC	ATP-Binding Cassette
5.	ACME	Arginine Catabolic Mobile Element
6.	ADR	Antimicrobial Drug Resistance
7.	AGAR	Australian Group on Antimicrobial Resistance
8.	AST	Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing
9.	AWD	Agar Well Diffusion
10.	CADD	Computer Aided Drug Design
11.	CA-MRSA	Community Acquired MRSA
12.	CCAP	Community Associated Pneumonia
13.	CDC	Centre for Disease Control
14.	CDDEP	Center for Disease Dynamics, Economics and Policy
15.	CFU	Colony Forming Unit
16.	CG	Catechin Gallate
17.	CLSI	Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute
18.	cSSTIs	Complicated Skin and Soft Tissue Infections
19.	CTAB	Cetyl Trimethyl Ammonium Bromide
20.	DDW	Double Distilled Water
21.	DHFR	Dihydrofolate Reductase
22.	DHPS	Dihydropteroate Synthase
23.	DMSO	Dimethyl Sulphoxide
24.	DNA	Deoxyribose Nucleic Acid
25.	DNase	Deoxyribonuclease
26.	dNTP	Deoxynucleotide Triphosphate
27.	DSSP	Dictionary of Protein Secondary Structure
28.	EARS- Net	European Antimicrobial Resistance Surveillance Network
29.	EC	Enzyme Commission
30.	ECG	Epicatechin Gallate
31.	EDTA	Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid
32.	EG	Ethyl Gallate
33.	EGCG	Epigallo Catechin Gallate
34.	EGTA	Ethylene glycol-bis(β -aminoethyl ether)-N,N,N',N'-tetraacetic acid
35.	EMRSA	Epidemic-MRSA
36.	ESI	Electro Spray Ionization
37.	EtBr	Ethidium Bromide
38.	EUCAST	European Committee for Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing
39.	FIC	Fractional Inhibitory Concentration
40.	GI	Gastro Intestinal
41.	GISA	Glycopeptide Intermediate <i>S. aureus</i>
42.	HA-MRSA	Hospital Acquired MRSA
43.	HBD	Hydrogen Bond Donors
44.	HCl	Hydrochloric Acid
45.	HPLC	High Performance Liquid Chromatography

46.	hVISA	Hetero Vancomycin Intermediate <i>S. aureus</i>
47.	IMTECH	Institute of Microbial Technology
48.	INT	2-[4-iodophenyl]-3-[4-dinitrophenyl]-5-phenyltetrazolium chloride
49.	KDa	Kilodaltons
50.	MARSA	Multi- antibiotic Resistant <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>
51.	MATE	Multidrug and Toxic Efflux
52.	MDR	Multi Drug Resistance
53.	MFS	Major Facilitator Superfamily
54.	MH	Muller Hinton
55.	MHA	Muller Hinton Agar
56.	MHB	Muller Hinton Broth
57.	MIC	Minimum Inhibitory Concentration
58.	MR	Molar Refractivity
59.	MRSA	Methicillin Resistant <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>
60.	MS	Mass Spectrometry
61.	MSCRAMMs	Microbial Surface Components Recognizing Adhesive Matrix Molecules
62.	MSSA	Methicillin Sensitive <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>
63.	MTCC	Microbial Type Culture Collection
64.	MTT	3-(4,5-Dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-Diphenyltetrazolium Bromide
65.	NA	Nutrient Agar
66.	NaCl	Sodium Chloride
67.	NaH ₂ PO ₄	Sodium Dihydrogen Phosphate
68.	NaOH	Sodium Hydroxide
69.	NCBI	National Centre of Biotechnology
70.	NCEs	New Chemical Entities
71.	NIH	National Institute of Health, USA
72.	NMR	Nuclear Magnetic Resonance
73.	NTCC	National Collection Culture Type
74.	OD	Optical Density
75.	PBP	Penicillin Binding Protein
76.	PCR	Polymerase Chain Reaction
77.	PHAC	Public Health Agency of Canada
78.	QSAR	Quantitative Structure Activity Relationship
75.	R&D	Research & Development
79.	RNase	Ribonuclease
80.	RTIs	Respiratory Tract Infections
81.	SARs	Structure Activity Relationships
82.	SBDD	Structure Based Drug Design
83.	SBVS	Structure Based Virtual Screening
84.	SCC	Staphylococcal Cassette Chromosome
85.	SDS	Sodium Dodecyl Sulphate
86.	SE	Staphylococcal Enterotoxins
87.	SMR	Small Multi-Drug Resistance Family
88.	SSTIs	Skin and Soft Tissue Infections
89.	TAE	Tris acetate EDTA
90.	TE	Tris EDTA
91.	TFA	Tri Fluororo Acetic Acid
92.	Tris	Tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane

93.	TSB	Tryptone Soya Broth
94.	TSS	Toxic Shock Syndrome
95.	TSST	Toxic Shock Syndrome Toxin
96.	TTC	2, 3, 5-Triphenyl Tetrazolium Chloride
97.	UK	United Kingdom
98.	UPLC	Ultra Performance Liquid Chromatography
99.	USA	United States of America
100.	USFDA	United States Food and Drug Administrations
101	uSSTIs	Urinary Skin and Soft Tissue Infections
102	UV	Ultra Violet
103.	VRSA	Vancomycin Resistant <i>S. aureus</i>
104.	WHO	World Health Organization
105.	XRD	X-ray Diffraction

Executive Summary

The present study was oriented to identify the resistance modifying agent (RMA) for β -lactam antibiotics, Penicillin and Oxacillin against Methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA). Initially, identification of RMA's was based on inhibitors of *FemA* protein's structure, which is a novel drug target and has not been exploited so far in antibiotic drug development, using computational tools by virtual library of compounds. Catechin Gallate (CG) was selected as the inhibitor of *FemA* protein from *in silico* studies which comprised of docking, interaction, toxicity and checking of Lipinski violations. Subsequently to identifying CG as a lead molecule from *in silico* studies, its antibacterial property in presence and absence of antibiotics Oxacillin and Penicillin was carried out to arrive to MIC and FIC index of the antibiotic combinations. Further time kill kinetics and mucopolysaccharide content of the test and control organisms was carried out by nLC-MS in the three standard isolates of *S. aureus*.

Three synergistic formulations viz formulation of 62.5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ oxacillin with 7.8 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ of CG, 62.5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ oxacillin with 31.25 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ of CG and 125 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ of oxacillin with 7.8 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ of CG were found to potentiate oxacillin against three isolates of *S. aureus* viz. NCTC 6571, MTCC 737 and MTCC 96, while one synergistic formulation of 2000 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ penicillin with 7.8 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ of CG was found to be effective against NCTC 6571

Reduction of more than 50% peak area in concentration of mucopeptides of test formulations compared to their control, indicates the modulation of functional expression of *FemXAB* proteins by CG the selected inhibitor of *FemA* protein. Subsequently, β -lactam antibiotic efficiency has been increased in MRSA strains. With the use of CG, possibly due to inhibition of *FemXAB* protein as evident from change in mucopeptides content. Hence, the present study establishes the potential of Catechin Gallate as potentiator of β -lactam antibiotics against MRSA *in vitro* and warrants extensive studies on clinical isolates and their mucopeptides composition.

Chapter 1: Introduction

Introduction

Staphylococcus aureus is gram-positive spherical bacteria existing in microscopic clusters or bunches similar to grapes. It was first recognized by Sir Alexander Ogoston as a major human pathogen causing wound suppuration. *S. aureus* is an opportunistic pathogen despite being an asymptomatic colonizer of skin and anterior nares of healthy individuals. The infections caused by *S. aureus* range from mild superficial skin infections to be extreme like bacteremia, which is potentially fatal. Skin and Soft-tissue infections (SSTI's) generally comprise of boils, impetigo, furuncle, carbuncle, cellulites to abscesses while severe infections comprise of bacteremia, infective endocarditis, osteoarthritis, pleuropulmonary and device-related contaminations

β -lactam antibiotic (Fig. 1.1), Penicillin was first brought into use to treat infections caused by *S. aureus* after its serendipitous discovery by Sir Alexander Fleming (1929). However, due to its widespread and indiscriminate use during the World War II, it soon acquired resistance against Penicillin by production of the enzyme Penicillinase. Even though, Penicillinase resistant version of Penicillin, Methicillin was developed by Beecham (now GlaxoSmithKline, GSK) but *S. aureus* soon acquired resistance against it, and thus methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA) emerged, which was reported from a British Hospital. Slowly, MRSA turned out to be sporadic in occurrence in 1970s, epidemic in 1980s and finally becoming endemic and widespread since 1990s. MRSA has two distinct lineages – hospital associated MRSA (HA-MRSA) which is responsible for nosocomial infections and Community associated MRSA (CA-MRSA) which causes serious infections in the community.

MRSA today has acquired, the status of third dreaded pathogen (Saxena and Gomber, 2010), due to its refractory behavior against all antibiotic classes discovered between 1950 to early 2000. This is attributed to its genomic plasticity. MRSA strains are increasing

Chapter 1: Introduction

speedily in several regions and there's a dynamic spread across the world. While HA-MRSA is prevalent to hospitals, the CA-MRSA clones are quickly diffusing through communities in many regions across the world.

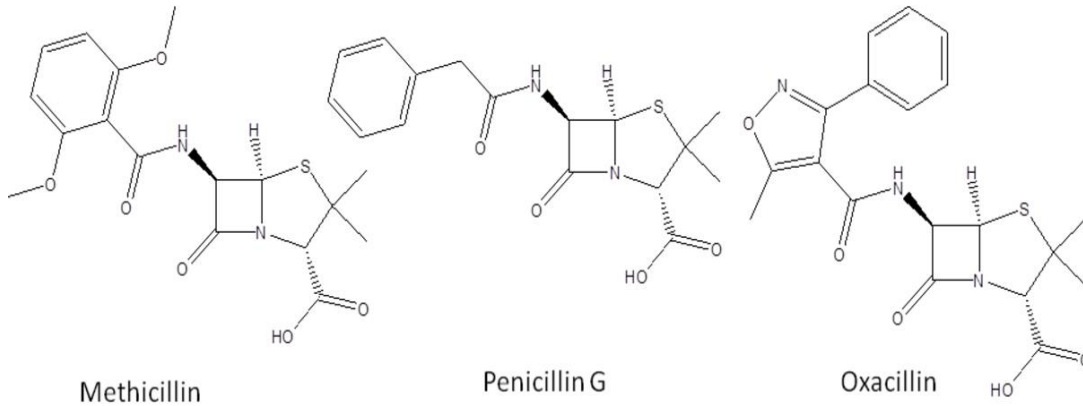


Fig. 1.1 2-D Structure of β -lactam antibiotics

They are also infiltrating the healthcare regions worldwide (Molton *et al.*, 2013). High prevalence rates of HA-MRSA, i.e. >50% have been reported in America, Asia and Malta. Intermediate rates (25-50%) of HA-MRSA are reported from countries like China, Australia, Africa, Portugal, Greece, Italy and Romania. Scandinavia and Netherlands have reported the least prevalent rates. HA-MRSA is a prominent nosocomial pathogen in which resistance has already been reported to all the licensed antibiotics (Waters *et al.*, 2017). CA-MRSA has been prevalent in USA with tenfold higher incidence in a study conducted in San Francisco; CA while in western Europe CA-MRSA has remained infrequent. MRSA has been reported to be endemic in India, with incidence ranging from 25% in western part to 50% in South India. Apart from HA-MRSA incidences of CA-MRSA infections are also on the rise in India (Stefania *et al.*, 2012; Joshi *et al.*, 2013). The antibiotics currently used against *Staphylococci* predominantly target the (i) cell wall or Envelope (ii) ribosome and the translation process (iii) nucleic acids on the transcription machinery. The acquisition of resistance in *Staphylococci* occurs either by horizontal transfer of resistance determinants or through the mutations in

Chapter 1: Introduction

genes. Horizontal acquisition of resistance comprises of resistance determinants such as plasmids, transposons and the Staphylococcal Cassette chromosome (SCC *mec*) carrying the *mecA* gene. While acquisition of resistance of mutation in gene's results in (i) alteration of the drug target rendering the inhibitor ineffective (ii) de-repression of the chromosomally encoded multidrug efflux resistance pumps (iii) and stepwise mutations, which alter the chemical composition and structure of the cell wall thereby reducing the access to the target. However, the global spread of MRSA clones with acquisition of resistance to other drug classes has posed a critical situation for clinicians to treat chronic infections caused by MRSA/MARSA (multi-antibiotic resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*)(Foster, 2017).

Thus there is a need to develop innovative approaches to develop novel treatment methodologies. Initiatives like GAIN (Generating Antibiotic Incentives Now) act in 2012 by US FDA, initiation of Innovative Medicine Initiative (IMI) as well as New Drugs 4 Bad Bugs (ND4BB) programs in Europe have created networks for carrying out clinical trials of novel antibacterial agents as well as their registration for faster deployment in treating resistant and chronic infections caused by MRSA. Antibiotics such as Vancomycin and Teicoplanin have been in clinical use for years are now getting increasingly resistant after the emergence of resistant clones. Other anti-MRSA agents like Ceftaroline, Ceftobiprole, Dalbavancin, Telavancin has been approved by the regulatory agencies since 2009. However, these antibiotics seem to be arsenal for treatment of critical infective conditions, due to multidrug resistant MRSA (Bal *et al.*, 2017; Assis *et al.*, 2017).

Developing innovative approaches to re-use existing antibiotics appear as a promising strategy for immediately addressing the escalating antimicrobial resistance crisis. Penicillins and the other β -lactam antibiotics generally target the cell wall formation by which the osmoticum gets disturbed resulting in its death. There are two resistance mechanisms,

Chapter 1: Introduction

which are displayed by the MRSA viz. β -lactamase enzyme and the modified PBP2 expression. It has been noted that MRSA also has *SCCmec* gene, which is to be believed to be horizontally transferred from *S. sciuri*. Vancomycin, a glycopeptide antibiotic was preferred antibiotic drug for MRSA infections, which acted on the D-Ala-D-Ala C-terminal peptide bond physically blocking its recognition and cross-linking, thereby destabilizing the cell wall formation. However, the upsurge of vancomycin resistance was through a mechanism wherein accumulation of mucopeptides monomers gathered and sequestered large amount of vancomycin.

Presently, Ceftobiprole and Ceftaroline are the only 5th generation of β -lactam antibiotics belonging to Cephalosporin class, which act as efficient agents against MRSA and VRSA (Fig.1.2). More recently a natural product Teixobactin (Fig. 1.2) has been identified to inhibit *S. aureus* growth by blocking the peptidoglycan synthesis, precursor molecule Lipid II. However, it is still under pre-clinical studies. Hence other strategies of re-deploying current antimicrobials to treat MRSA and VRSA infections comprise of preparation of drug cocktails. In a drug cocktail, antibiotics are combined as their synergistic activity could be used as possible modality to treat MRSA and VRSA infections. Similarly β -lactamase inhibitors have been successfully combined with antibiotics to revert the resistance induced due to expression of β -lactamases revealed by the bacteria (Nikoladis *et al.*, 2014; Assis *et al.*, 2017).

Clavulanic acid, Tazobactam and Sulbactam (Fig. 1.3) have been formulated with different β -lactam antibiotics to overcome β -lactamase producing MRSA. Augmentin, i.e. Amoxicillin and Clavulanic acid combination has been successful in the treatment of soft tissue and skin infections caused by MRSA. Amoxicillin is a PBP2 inhibitor while Clavulanic acid is a β -lactamase inhibitor. However, with the emergence of mutated forms of β -lactamase TEM-1 have rendered clavulanate less sensitive and therefore, it may not be out of

Chapter 1: Introduction

place to mention that β -lactamases as a target for novel inhibitor development may have a limited future (Assis *et al.*, 2017).

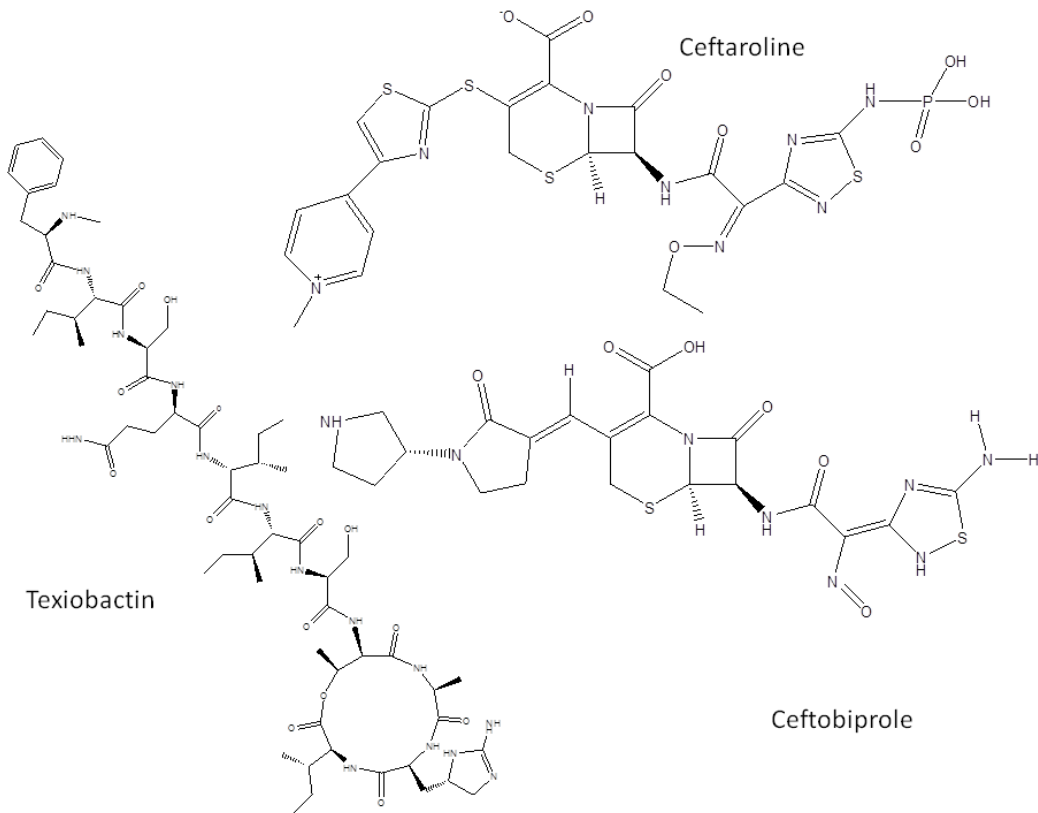


Fig. 1.2. 2-D Structure of 5th generation of β lactam antibiotics and Texiobactin

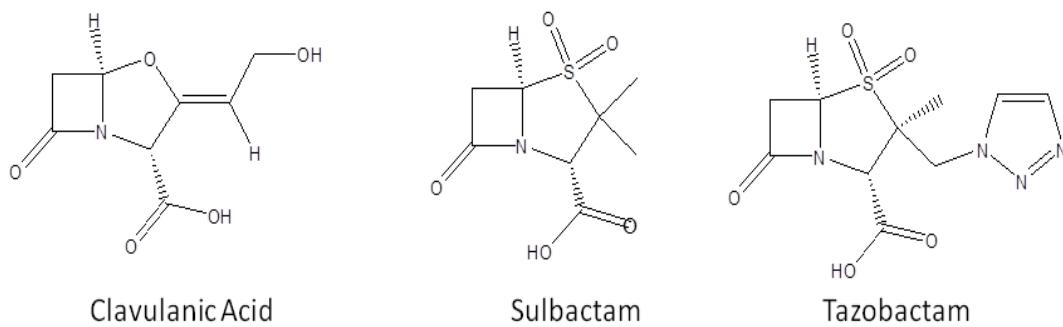


Fig. 1.3. 2-D structures of resistance modifying agents of β -lactamase producing MRSA

Another promising target for reversal/re-potential of β -lactam antibiotic is *FemABX* proteins. Structurally Peptidoglycan layer in *S. aureus* is composed of repeating units of N-acetylglucosamine (GlcNAc) and N-Acetylmuramic acid (MurNAc) with stem peptide (L-

Chapter 1: Introduction

Ala-D-iso-Gln-L-Lys-D-Ala-D-Ala) which is attach to the pentaglycine binding segment. The PG lattice formation due to cross-linking occurs by a peptide bond formation between the terminal glycine residue of the bridging segment of one glycan chain and D-Ala [4th amino acid (aa)] of the stem peptide of the adjoining side chain which is generally catalyzed by *FemA* (Fig.1.4). If the pentaglycine bridging segment is ill formed or shortened it leads to failure is cross linking and thus causes loss of methicillin resistance mediated by PBP2a. Consequently, developing inhibitors of this *FemABX* protein is a promising approach to rejuvenate the β -lactam antibiotics. Previously an inhibitor of *S. aureus FemA* has been reported to potentiate the activity of imipenem against MRSA (Sharif *et al.*, 2009). 4

Plants have served as novel sources of antimicrobial agents as well as anti-microbial resistance modifying agents. Several plants secondary metabolites or photochemical has been found to re-potentiate the antibiotic against drug-resistant bacteria when co-administered as a synergistic formulation. Catechin gallate (CG), Epicatechin gallate (ECG), Epigallocatechin gallate (EGCG) (Fig. 1.5) from *Camellia sinensis* have been found to synergistically enhance the antimicrobial action of β -lactam, Ofloxacin, Carbapenems and Tetracycline's by mechanisms such as β -lactamase inhibition, PBP2a synthesis inhibition, interaction with peptidoglycan, Ethidium bromide (EtBr) efflux inhibition. Bicalein (Fig. 1.5) from *Scutellaria* species has been found to re-potentiate β -lactam by interaction with the peptidoglycan. Similarly Tellimagrandin, (shown in Fig.1.5) Rugosin from *Rosa Canina*; Corilagin (Fig. 1.5) from *Arctostaphylos uva-ursi* have been found to synergistically re-potentiate β -lactam by inhibition or inactivation of PBP/PBP2a activity. Likewise, Berberine (Fig. 1.5), a hydrophobic alkaloid isolated from *Berberis* species has been reported to additive effect with Ampicillin and synergistic effect with Oxacillin against MRSA (Abreu *et al.*, 2012).

Chapter 1: Introduction

including oxidative stress. As flavonoids play an immense role in protection of plants against infections caused by microorganisms, these may be effectively utilized for treating infections caused by bacteria in humans directly or indirectly as adjuvant of currently used antibiotics to re-potentiate their activities in treating infections caused by the drug-resistant bacteria. Catechins, the most reduced form on the C3 unit in flavonoids compounds extracted from green tea (*Camellia sinensis*) and has been extensively researched due to their antimicrobial activity. Catechins and their derivatives have activities against a wide range of bacteria (Hamilton-Miller *et al.*, 1995; Critchfield *et al.*, 1996; Cowan, 1999; Pandey and Kumar, 2013). Studies conducted over last two decades indicated that there are various other polyphenolic compounds in green tea and black tea like Catechin, Epicatechin.

ECG, EGCG, CG which shows synergistic activities with aminoglycosides and β -lactam antibiotics against MRSA (Zhao *et al.*, 2001; Gibbons *et al.*, 2004; Taylor, 2005; Stapleton *et al.*, 2006). Among these catechins derivatives, catechins having gallate moiety play an essential role in increasing the susceptibility of β -lactam against MRSA (Shibata *et al.*, 2005). Galloylated catechins have been found to inhibit the formation of biofilms of *Staphylococcus*. Therefore, used in food industry to prevent food spoilage and poisoning from *Staphylococcus* strains (Anderson *et al.*, 2011).

As *FemA* protein appears to be a novel target for screening inhibitors for re-potentiating β -lactam antibiotics. In present work we have *in silico* screened a library of catechin derivatives for their potential to inhibit *FemA* and further evaluated the best inhibitor for the reverting the antimicrobial resistance of MRSA towards selected antibiotics.

Chapter 1: Introduction

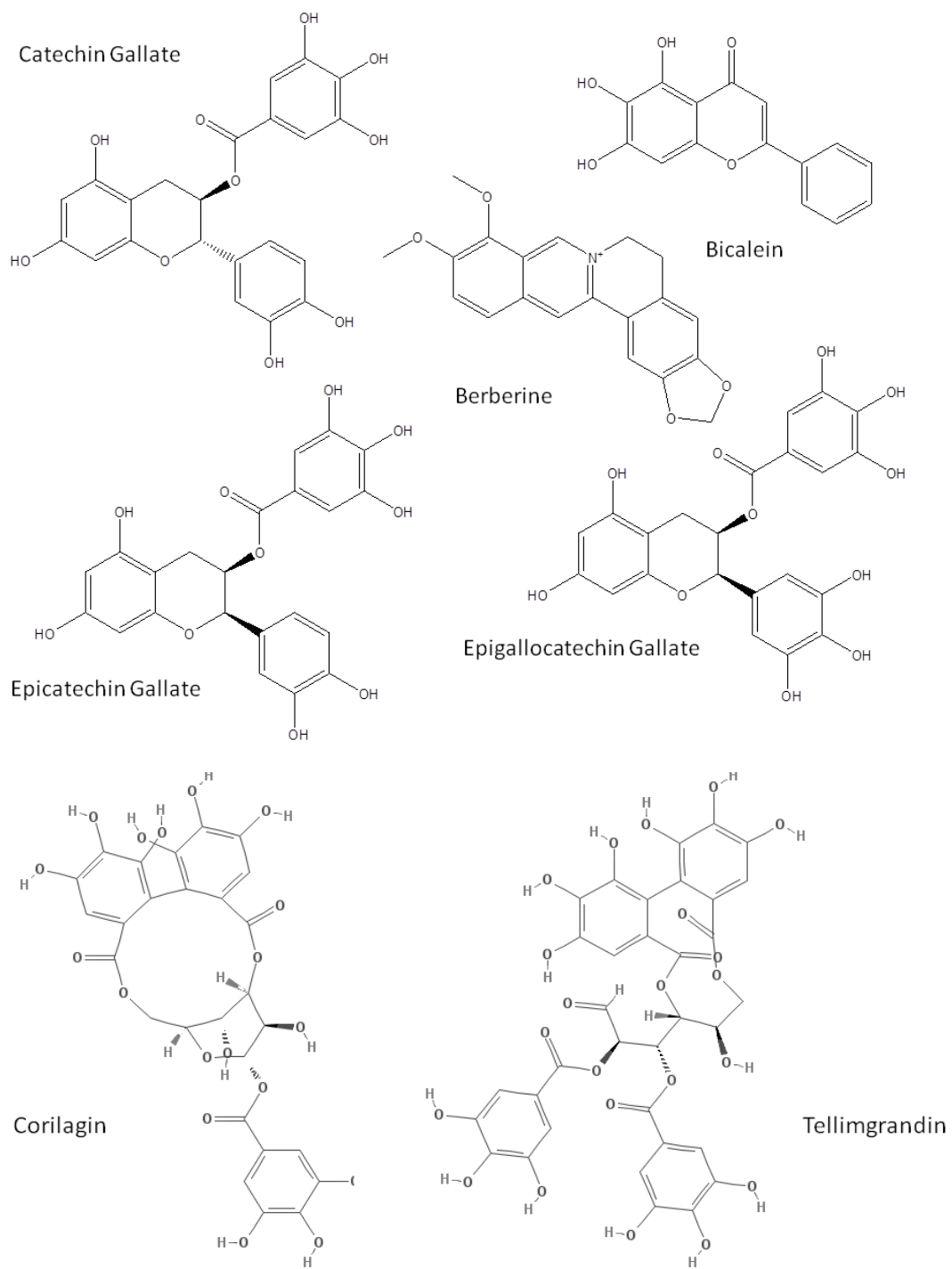


Fig. 1.5. 2-D structures of resistance modifying agents of β -lactam antibiotics from plants

Chapter 2: Present Approach

2.1 Hypothesis

Peptidoglycan or murein is the most important component of gram positive bacteria, which not only provides them shape, but also protects the cell from their own internal turgor pressure. Due to this, targeting at this site can inhibit the synthesis of peptidoglycan, which can cause cell lysis and death of bacteria (Reed *et al.*, 2015; Typas *et al.*, 2012). Flavonoids, like Epicatechin gallate and Epigallocatechin gallate, catechin gallate, are the key components of green tea (*Camellia sinensis*) which are reported for alteration in the architecture of the *S. aureus* cell wall (Ando *et al.*, 1999; Stapleton *et al.*, 2007). Despite this, their mechanism of action is not known properly. Therefore, to study the mechanism of action of these flavonoids, in MRSA strains, we have selected the complete library of catechins for virtual screening of an inhibitor against *FemA* protein (Singhal and Saxena, 2015), which is an essential protein for pentaglycyl bond formation during the cross-linking of peptide chains, for the elongation of peptidoglycan (Heijenoort, 2001; Maidhof *et al.*, 1991; Rohrer *et al.*, 1999). Selected inhibitor was further tested experimentally, for its synergistic antibacterial behavior with selected β -lactam antibiotics against standard *S. aureus* cultures.

2.2 Objectives

Based on the above hypothesis, the objectives of the current study are following:

1. Active site prediction of *FemA* using bioinformatics tools.
2. *In silico* identification of inhibitors of *FemA*.
3. *In vitro* assessment of inhibitor against methicillin resistance *Staphylococcus aureus*.
 - a) Methicillin resistance determination of *S. aureus* isolates by *mecA* amplification.
 - b) MIC determination of Penicillin on a panel of *mecA* and *femA* isolates.

Chapter 2: Present Approach

- c) Protein Expression of *femA* and *mecA* in the presence of β -lactam and selected inhibitor.

Chapter 3: Review of Literature

3.1 Pathogenicity of *Staphylococcus aureus*

S. aureus is a most abundant human pathogen, which is responsible for most of the infections. Open wounds, skin, soft tissues (mucosa membrane of nose, vagina, etc.), pharynx, gastrointestinal tracts are the main site of infection (Gordon and Lowy, 2008). Similar to other micro-organisms *Staphylococcus* spread the infections in the host by tissue invasion, toxin production (Chang *et al.*, 2003). Abilities of *Staphylococcus* to up-regulate virulence factors and adherence to the host surface are the key factors which are responsible for its persistence in blood stream and its infections (Naber, 2009). Teichoic acid is an essential polymer for the adhesion of virulence factors on the surface of bacteria (Weidenmaier *et al.*, 2004). Despite, of a large number of antibiotics for *Staphylococcus* treatment, another most vital factor is resistance against antibiotics or MRSA (CDDEP, 2015).

3.1.1 Virulence Determinants

Virulence factors of *Staphylococcus* are depending on their functions which are divided into various categories (Gordon and Lowry, 2008);

In attachment: Microbial surface components recognizing adhesive matrix molecules (MSCRAMMs) are those virulence factors which are responsible for adherence to the host tissue. They bind to clumping factors and various proteins like fibronectin-binding, collagen and bone sialoprotein-binding. Genes responsible are *clfA*, *clfB*, *fnbA*, *fnbB*, *can*, *sdr*, *bbp*. MSCRAMMs are liable for infections of endovascular system, prosthetic-devices, bone and joints. (Patti *et al.*, 1994; Foster *et al.*, 1998; Tung *et al.*, 2000; Menzies *et al.*, 2003).

In Persistence: After adherence to host tissue, it grows and persists in different ways and is also reported to form biofilm (Zago *et al.*, 2015). Along with biofilm production, they form small-colony variants (SCVs), which may contribute to constant and frequent infections in the host. Genes responsible for persistence are *iCa* locus and *hemB* mutations. These kinds of

Chapter 3: Review of Literature

virulence factors is the main cause of relapsing of infection (Ogawa *et al.*, 1985; Hamill *et al.*, 1986; Kahl *et al.*, 1998; Proctor *et al.*, 1995; 1998; Donlan *et al.*, 2002; Arrecubieta and Lowy, 2006).

In invading host defense mechanism: Production of the anti-phagocytic capsule (eg. Capsule 5 and 8) is the main defense mechanism of bacteria inside the host. Protein A of bacteria binds to the F_c segment of immunoglobulin and prevents the bacteria from phagocytosis. Leukocidins, CHIPS, Eap, and phenol-soluble modulins are the other virulence factors, which prevent the bacteria inside the host. Genes liable are *cap5* and *8* for capsule formation, *spa* for protein A, *chp* for CHIPS, *lukS-PV* and *lukF-PV* are responsible for leukocidins formation and leukocyte destruction and *psm-a* gene for production of phenol soluble modulins (Riordan *et al.*, 2004; Tzianabos *et al.*, 2004; Foster, 2005; Wang *et al.*, 2007).

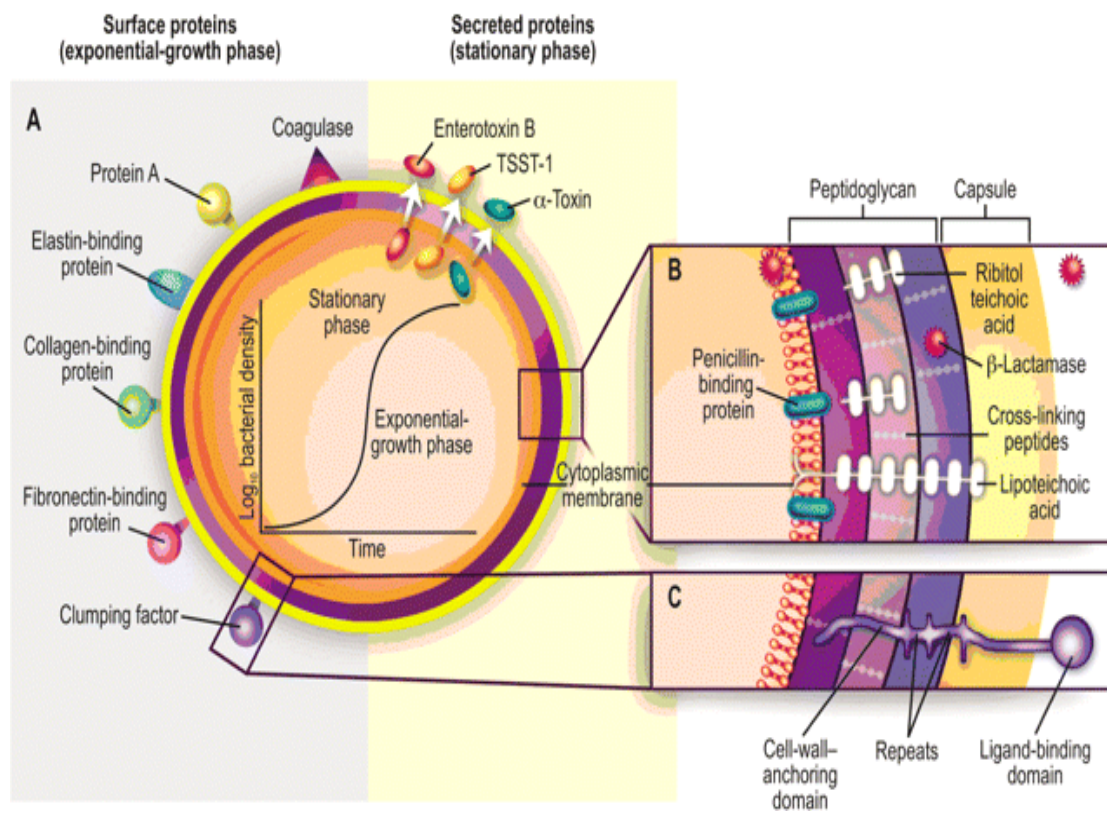


Fig. 3.1.1.1. Pathogenicity of *S. aureus*, with structural and secreted products. (A), Surface and secreted proteins. (B and C), Cross-sections of the cell envelope. TSST-1, toxic shock syndrome toxin 1. This Figure is adapted from [Lowy, 1998].

Chapter 3: Review of Literature

In tissue invasion: Proteases, lipases, nucleases, phospholipase C, and metalloproteases are those virulence factors, which are liable for destruction of host defense mechanism. Genes liable are *V8*, *hysA*, *hla*, *plc*, *sepA* (Projan *et al.*, 1997).

In toxin mediated diseases: By interacting with the host coagulation and interaction pathway *Staphylococcus* produces enterotoxins and causes toxic shock syndrome (TSS), and also produces toxins like toxins A and B, A-toxin, is liable for food poisoning. Genes responsible for these toxins are *sea-q*, *tstH*, *eta*, *etb*, *hla*. (Bhakdi *et al.*, 1991; Timmerman *et al.*, 1993; Heumann *et al.*, 1994; Dinges *et al.*, 2000; Prevost *et al.*, 2003).

Least responsible for virulence: Coagulase, arginine catabolic mobile element (ACME), and bacteriocin are the least responsible virulence factors (Baba *et al.*, 2002; Diep *et al.*, 2006).

3.2 Target Sites for Antibiotics

Cell wall Synthesis, Protein Synthesis and DNA Synthesis are the three main target sites in the bacteria, where antibiotics generally interact to induce inhibition (Kohanski *et al.*, 2010; Saxena and Gomber 2010).

3.2.1. Cell wall Synthesis Inhibitors

Cell wall is the outermost and main component of bacterial structure. *Staphylococcus* cell wall or peptidoglycan layer is made up of interactions between sugars and peptide bonds. There are three classes of antibiotics, which target cell wall synthesis. First broad class of antibiotics is β -lactam's which includes all antimicrobial agents having β -lactam structure in their core region. It includes penams or Penicillin derivatives, Cephems or Cephalosporins, Carbapenems and Monobactams. They interfere with cell wall synthesis by providing pseudo-substrate for trans-peptidation reaction, which causes weak bond formation and osmotic imbalance leads to bacterial death (Holten *et al.*, 2000) Second class of antibiotics which interfere with cell wall synthesis are glycopeptides (antibiotics having glycolic structure). This group comprises of

Chapter 3: Review of Literature

Vancomycin, Telavacin, Teicoplanin, Ramoplanin, Bleomycin and Decaplanin. They prevent the addition of new units of sugars and stem peptide by binding with (D-Alal-D-Ala) peptide bond and in this, way inhibit peptidoglycan formation (Pootoolal *et al.*, 2002; Tile, 2013). Third class of antibiotics is Lipopeptides, antimicrobial agents having lipids attached to the peptide bonds (Spellberg *et al.*, 2004). It includes Daptomycin and polymixin B; they interfere with cell wall synthesis by forming complex with the monophosphorylated bactoprenol carrier (Schneider *et al.*, 2009; Tile, 2013; Sakoulas *et al.*, 2016)

3.2.2. Translation Inhibitors

Translation is a process of synthesis of proteins, which includes initiation, elongation and termination step. Various classes of antibiotics interfere with either of these protein synthesis steps by interfering with 50s or 30s subunit of ribosomes, which includes Lincosamides, Oxazolidinones, Aminoglycosides, Macrolides, Tetracyclines, and Chloramphenicol. Lincosamides inhibits protein synthesis by blocking 23s portion of 50s subunit of bacterial ribosomes, which results from early detachment of the peptidyl-tRNA from the ribosome (Tenson, *et al.*, 2003). Lincomycin and clindamycin are two antibiotics of this class. Oxazolidinone's class of antibiotics has been 2-oxazolidinones in their structure. They target initial step of protein synthesis by binding between N-formylmethionyl-tRNA and ribosome (Shinabarger *et al.*, 1999). Oxazolidinones are marketed as Linezolid, Posizolid, Tedizolid, and Radezolid. Chloramphenicol is a semi-synthetic class of antibiotics, which binds to the ribosomal 50s subunit and inhibits the peptidyl transferase step of translation [Byarugaba, 2010].

Aminoglycosides class of antibiotics have amino-sugar's in their structure and interfere with protein synthesis by association with 30s ribosomal unit, which disturb protein elongation. Macrolides class of antibiotics having 14-16 membered lactone ring in their

Chapter 3: Review of Literature

structure. They inhibit protein synthesis by three mechanisms (i) Preventing peptidyltransferases (Gary *et al.*, 2009). (ii) Inhibiting ribosomal translation (Drainas *et al.*, 1987; Davis *et al.*, 2014). (iii) Early detachment of the peptidyl-tRNA from the ribosome (Tenson *et al.*, 2003). Clarithromycin, Erythromycin and Roxithromycin are 14-membered while Azithromycin is 15-membered macrolide only example. Tetracyclines have the four-ring structure; they target 30s ribosomal unit of bacteria and inhibit protein synthesis by preventing the association of charged aminoacyl-tRNA to the ribosome. Tetracycline, minocycline and doxycycline are antibiotics of this class (Chopra *et al.*, 2001; Connell *et al.*, 2003).

3.2.3. DNA Synthesis Inhibitors

Some antibiotics targets either bind with DNA or inhibit various steps of DNA synthesis. Fluoroquinolones and Sulphonamide are two classes of antibiotics, which target DNA synthesis. Fluoroquinolones inhibits DNA replication by targeting topoisomerase II and topoisomerase IV, which are required for maintaining the chromosomal topology. In gram-positive bacteria, main target site of fluoroquinolones is a type II DNA topoisomerases (gyrases) that is required for synthesis of bacterial DNA and mRNA.

Various generations of flouroquinolones were launched and withdrawn from the market due to their adverse effects. Fluoroquinolones which have been withdrawn are Temafloxacin (1992), Trovafloxacin (1999) and Gatifloxacin (2006) (Zimmerman *et al.*, 1999; Reuters, 1999; Bertino *et al.*, 2000; Moseley *et al.*, 2013). Sulphonamides are structural derivatives of p-amino benzoic acid, which inhibits DNA synthesis by inhibiting tetrahydrate folic acid i.e. dihydropteroate synthase (DHPS) essential for DNA synthesis. DHPS catalyzes alteration of p-amino benzoic acid to dihydropteroic acid. Trimethoprim is a sulphonamide which has high affinity for dihydrofolate reductase (DHFR) enzyme and consequently,

Chapter 3: Review of Literature

competitively inhibits the reduction of dihydrofolic acid to tetrahydrofolic acid, which is the last step of the DNA synthesis pathways (Jensen and Lyon, 2009).

3.3 Resistance Mechanism of MRSA

Methicillin resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA) is also called as Oxacillin resistant *S. aureus* (ORSA) or multiple resistant *S. aureus* or superbug, as it carries several resistance genes (Madhavan and Murali, 2011). MRSA was first discovered in 1961 in UK, just after the discovery of methicillin (Jevons, 1961; Enright *et al.*, 2002). This intrinsic resistance is primarily owing to the acquisition of staphylococcal chromosomal cassette (40-60Kb) which carries the *mecA* gene (SCC*mec*). SCC*mec* elements are highly dissimilar and of 11 types (i to xi) (Peacock and Paterson, 2015). SCC*mec* types are integrated at the same site (*attB*_{SCC}) which is located at the 3' end of *orfX* gene of unknown function (Ita *et al.*, 1999). SCC*mecA* gene is the main molecular determinant of resistance, and it spreads by horizontal transfer of gene among susceptible strains.

This *mecA* gene encodes for altered (78kDa) PBP2a or PBP2'. This altered PBP2a decreases the affinity of β -lactam as compared to the native PBPs (Reynolds and Brown, 1985). In addition to this SCC*mecA* gene, it consists of 3 cassette chromosome recombinase genes (*ccrA*, *ccrB* and *ccrC*) and 2 *mec* regulator genes (*mecI* and *mecR*). *ccr* genes are responsible for mobility and recombinases of SCC*mec*. *mecR1* gene encodes for *MecR1* protein, which is a membrane-bound signal translocation protein whereas *mecI* encodes for the transcriptional regulators (*mecI*) (Peacock and Paterson, 2015). Selective antibiotics usage creates a pressure, which results into mutations and deletion within *mecI* or promoter/operator regions of *mecA*, resulting repressor inactivation and PBP2a expression (Suzuki *et al.*, 1993; Kobayashi *et al.*, 1998; Stapleton and Taylor, 2002 and Shukla *et al.*, 2004). Along with *mecA* there are other factors which are also responsible for methicillin resistance

Chapter 3: Review of Literature

viz. *Fem* or auxiliary (*aux*) factor, *murF*, *fmtA-C*, *sigB*, *hmr A*, *hmr B*, *dlt*, *pbp2*, *ctaA*, while factors like *ilm* and global regulators *agr* and *sar* genes have minute effect on resistance (Berger-Bachi, 1994; Chambers, 1997; Fernández *et al.*, 2004).

3.4 Resistance Modifying Agents (RMA's)

RMA's are the new approach to overcome resistance of antibiotics. They are generally used in combination with resistant antibiotics to reverse the resistance. There are mainly four kinds of RMA's depending on their mechanism of action (Abreu *et al.*, 2012).

3.4.1 Acting on modified target site of antimicrobial agents

Target site modification is the most common method of developing the resistance. Tetracycline, β -lactam and glycopeptide are the classes of antibiotics which have developed resistance through this mechanism. Cell wall structural enzymes (PBPs) are the target sites of β -lactams. Production of altered low affinity PBPs i.e. PBP2a by *mecA* gene is responsible for resistance. Modified Cephalosporin's, Carbapenems and Trinem are the β -lactam antibiotics, which are designed against PBP2a. While Tellimagrandin I, Rugosin B from *Rosa canina L.* and Corilagin from *Arctostaphylos uva-ursi* are RMA's against PBP2a.

Similarly, RMA's for glycopeptide antibiotics is Silybin from *Silybum marianum* which are synergist against vancomycin resistant strains. They target the modified peptidoglycan structures of the resistant strains (Foster, 2017; Nikolaidis *et al.*, 2014).

3.4.2 As membrane permeabilizing agents

Outer membrane proteins (OMPs) act as a selective barrier, due to their high lipopolysaccharide content for various hydrophobic solutes. Reduced OMPs permeability due to the modification of OMPs is the cause of resistance in the antibiotics like β -lactam, Carbapenems, Tetracycline, Chloramphenicol, Fluoroquinolones and Sulfonamides. Lipophilic compounds can reverse the resistance of antibiotics by increasing their permeability non-

Chapter 3: Review of Literature

specifically (Abreu *et al.*, 2012). Example of this class of RMA's is 5-methoxyhydnocarpin D (5-MHC-D) and pheophorbide A, which assist the diffusion of berberine into *S. aureus* (Saxena and Gomber, 2010).

3.4.3 Inhibitors of enzymes that inactivate antibiotics

Self-defense mechanism or internal enzymes produced by the bacteria against the action of antibiotics is another cause of resistance. β -lactamases overproduction is the example of this type of resistance, because it hydrolyze's the Penicillin's and Methicillin. Such antibiotics degrading bacterial enzymes are important target for reversal of resistance.

RMA's for β -lactams against β -lactamases are Clavulanic acid, Sulbactam and Tazobactam. Clavulanic acid has been combined with the antibiotic Amoxicillin as a formulation called Augmentin, while Ticarcillin has been combined with Timentin. Sulbactam has been combined with Ampicillin as Unasyn. Tazobactam is currently combined with Piperacillin as Tazocin (Abreu *et al.*, 2012; Nikolaidis *et al.*, 2014).

3.4.4 Inhibitors of efflux pumps

Efflux pumps are the one of the most important mechanism of antibiotic resistance. Gram-positive bacteria generally have three types of antibiotics efflux transporter families: Major facilitator superfamily (MFS), Small multi-drug resistance family (SMR) and ATP binding cassette family (ABC). *NorA* protein (for fluoroquinolones); *MsrA* protein (for macrolides) are examples of efflux pumps which are responsible for their resistance in *S. aureus*. Developments of inhibitors, which can target efflux pump proteins, are helpful in reversal of resistance. Along with these inhibitors, synthesis of analogs of antibiotics which are not recognizable by efflux pumps can be another good strategy against resistance (Abreu *et al.*, 2012; Foster, 2017). Reserpine is an RMA for *NorA* protein efflux pump) for use with fluoroquinolones such as Moxifloxacin, Ciprofoxacin and Sparfloxacin; and Tet(K) efflux pump

Chapter 3: Review of Literature

for Tetracyclines. Carnosic acid is RMA for *NorA* protein as well as for Tet(K) efflux pump. 5-MHC-D from *Berberis* plant, Capsaicin and Boronic acid are other RMA's which target *NorA* protein efflux pump and reverse the resistance of Ciprofloxacin (Abreu *et al.*, 2012; Saxena and Gomber, 2010; Assis *et al.*, 2017).

3.5 Mechanism of Modulating Methicillin Resistance

PBP2a protein expression is mainly responsible for methicillin resistance, which is encoded by *mecA* gene. Interference in the expression of *mecA* gene and the activity of the PBP2a protein can modulate the resistance mechanism. Biochemical studies have shown that PBP2a has specific substrate requirement. Factors, which affect substrate formation, can also modulate methicillin resistance. Pentaglycine chain and stem peptide formation are the two important substrates for PBP2a (Berger-Bachi and Tschierske, 1998; Stapleton and Taylor, 2002). Pentaglycine chain formation requires *FemABX* protein for sequentially addition of five glycine residues at the position 1,2,3,4 and 5. *FemX* adds 1st glycine residue, *FemA* adds 2nd and 3rd glycine residues, while *FemB* adds 4th and 5th glycine residues. Inactivation of genes coding for Fem proteins was earlier thought to be lethal for bacteria, but mutations restore the cell viability (Berger-Bachi and Tschierske, 1998).

During pentaglycine formation, inhibition of *FemABX* proteins can acts as new drug targets (Labischinski and Johannsen, 1999). Moreover, inhibition of these proteins can also affect the secretion of virulence factors (Ton-That *et al.*, 1998). Addition of serine residues in replacement of glycine can also reduce the methicillin resistance. It, furthermore, indicates that glycine residues are essential for PBP2a and by inhibiting the activity of PBP2a protein will not reverse the resistance (Tschierske *et al.*, 1997). Similarly addition of glycine residues in replacement of Alanine-Alanine residues of stem peptide, reduces the methicillin resistance (Jonge *et al.*, 1996), which indicates that normal stem peptide configuration is essential for

Chapter 3: Review of Literature

PBP2a activity (Stapleton and Taylor, 2002). Inactivation of *femF* or *murE* gene coding for UDP-N-acetylmuramyl tripeptide synthetase (that catalyzes the addition of the L-lysine residue to the UDP-linked muramyl dipeptide cell wall precursor) leads to decrease in resistance due to accumulation of UDP-linked muramyl dipeptide (Ludovice *et al.*, 1998; Gardete *et al.*, 2003). It also indicated the requirement of normal stem peptide for resistance. Disturbance of either stem peptide or pentaglycine formation may leads to weak cell wall formation or may make the cell susceptible.

3.6 Computational Methods in Drug Design

In drug discovery process, computational methods are one of the most important techniques which are generally exploited for hit identification as well as lead optimization. These are divided mainly in two categories like **structure based (SB)** and **ligand based (LB)** (Sliwoski *et al.*, 2014).

SB drug design (SBDD) methods are based on the structural knowledge of the target site. SBDD approaches include three methods: (1) **virtual screening** (screening of ligand in large 3-D databases, corresponding to specific binding site of target protein with the help of docking programs), (2) **de novo ligand design** (Construction of new ligand molecules according to binding site of target protein in a stepwise manner) and (3) **optimization of known ligands** (evaluation of proposed analogs of known ligands corresponding to binding sites)(Klebe, 2000; Wang *et al.*, 2000; Schneider and Fechner, 2005; Jorgensen,2004). While LB methods use only ligand information, they predict the ligand activity depending on the similarity to the previously known active ligands or construct quantitative structure activity relationship (QSAR). It includes pharmacophore modeling, SAR, QSAR, 3-D QSAR (Guner, 2000; Tropsha, 2010).

Chapter 3: Review of Literature

Among SBDD approaches, virtual screening or docking is the most commonly used technique. Docking is a molecular modeling technique to predict the best orientation of one small molecule towards the bigger target molecule (DNA, RNA or Protein) in the vicinity of each other, when both molecules combine to form a stable complex. It helps in predicting the bonding strength between these two molecules in terms of binding affinity, binding energy or scoring functions (Sliwoski, *et al.*, 2014). Main requisite of SBDD is high-resolution structural data of the target sites (Kitchen 2004). Whereas LBDD approaches are used where there is no structural information available (Guner, 2000; Sliwoski, *et al.*, 2014).

Various SBDD tools available are AutoDock (Goodsell *et al.*, 1990 and Morris *et al.*, 2009), DOCK (Kuntz, *et al.*, 1982), FlexX (Rarey *et al.*, 1997), GOLD (Jones *et al.*, 1997), LigandFit (Venkatachalam *et al.*, 2003), Glide (Friesner *et al.*, 2004), FRED (Schulz-Gasch and Stahl, 2003), Surflex (Jain *et al.*, 2003) and many more. AutoDock was used for developing the first clinically approved HIV integrase inhibitor (Schames, *et al.*, 2004). According to the ISI Web of Science; AutoDock was the most cited, docking tool among the 22 docking programs between 2001 to 2005 (Fig. 3.6.1(a)) Its citation has increased, from 36% to 48%. (Souise *et al.*, 2006). In the last decade, AutoDock has been reported as most approved and most cited docking tool among all the docking tools (Fig. 3.6.1 (b)). Following the AutoDock, Dock, GOLD, Flex and Glide are the popular tools.

According to yearly citations of these tools AutoDock is an again topmost tool with a citation of 500/year (Souise *et al.*, 2013) (Fig. 3.6.2). So far, 60 Docking programs have been discovered in last two decades, out of these programs AutoDock Vina has maintained its top position in all docking studies for prediction of top ranking poses with best scores. While GOLD and MOE-Dock are following the AutoDock in ranking (Pagadala *et al.*, 2017).

Chapter 3: Review of Literature

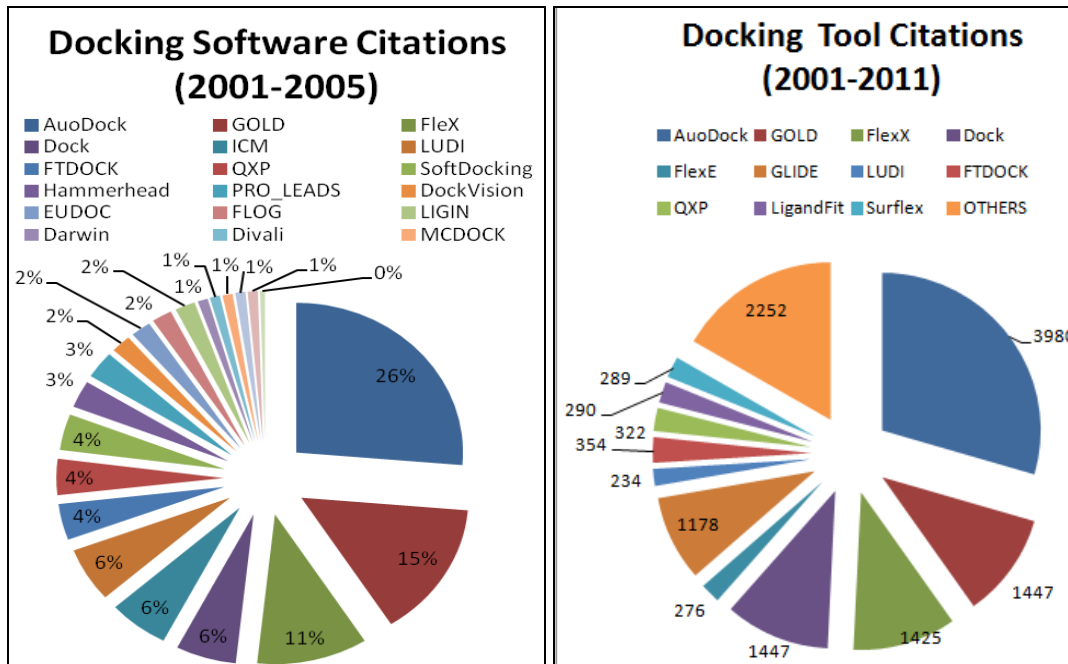


Fig. 3.6.1 Citation percentage of most common docking programs period (a) 2001-2005 (b) 2001-2010

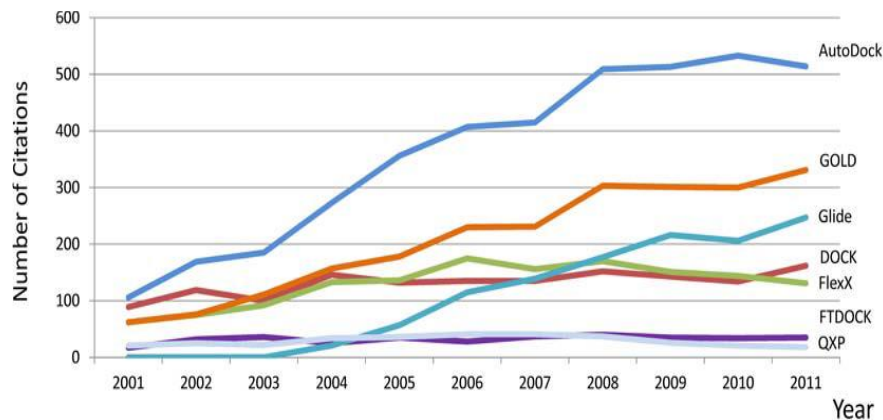


Fig. 3.6.2. Evolution of the number of citations/year for the 7 most cited protein-ligand docking programs over the period 2001-2011.

Almost all the docking tools require target protein and ligand structure file in the 3-D format. Structure proteins files are retrieved from 3-D databases like RCSB-PDB (Berman *et al.*, 2000), SWISS-MODEL (Kiefer *et al.*, 2009) and MODBASE (Pieper *et al.*, 2009) while PubChem (Kim *et al.*, 2015), Zinc (Irwin *et al.*, 2015), LigandExpo (Berman *et al.*, 2000) are examples of small binding structure databases.

Chapter 3: Review of Literature

Information of binding sites of protein is another essential requirement of docking, after the structure of protein. Binding sites are the small pockets or regions on the tertiary surface of proteins, where ligands bind to form non-covalent interactions, which are specific in nature. Mostly, it is the largest pocket in the protein. Binding site prediction is based on various methods like phylogenetic analysis, identifying structural similarity with proteins of known function and identifying regions on the protein surface with a potential for high binding affinity (Laurie *et al.*, 2006). Binding site prediction has been used in many SBDD projects and has been incorporated into a number of docking tools.

Binding tools which are not incorporated into the docking tools and most of these are freely available are SiteHound (<http://sitehound.sanchezlab.org>) (Hernandez *et al.*, 2009), Q-SiteFinder (<http://www.bioinformatics.leeds.ac.uk/qsitefinder>) (Laurie *et al.*, 2005), PocketFinder (<http://www.modelling.leeds.ac.uk/pocketfinder/>) (Duka, 2013 and Laurie *et al.*, 2005), Computed atlas of surface topography of proteins (CASTp) (<http://cast.engr.uic.edu/>) (Binkowski *et al.*, 2003 and Dundas *et al.*, 2006), and many more.

In the discovery of small molecule inhibitors through structure based virtual screening (SBVS) SiteHound server was used for binding site characterization of H1047R PI3K-kinase (Lionta *et al.*, 2014). SiteHound server gives more accurate results in those proteins which bind to ATP, phosphopeptides, and phosphosugars (Gherzi *et al.*, 2015). Q-SiteFinder was used to identify ligandable sites in A1-ARF6 active cholera toxin (Gangopadhyay and Datta, 2015). Q-SiteFinder has more accuracy rate than PocketFinder (Laurie and Jackson, 2005).

According to comparative research on 5416 protein-ligand complexes and 9900 Apo forms, for the holo structures, all four softwares viz. SiteFinder, Fpocket, PocketFinder, and SiteMap have identified 95% similar pockets; whereas, in Apo structures; PocketFinder has

Chapter 3: Review of Literature

shown 96% accuracy. In the absence of correct binding site information, blind docking can be performed.

Poor pharmacokinetics, side effects and toxicity of drugs are major reasons of failure of drugs in clinical and pre-clinical trials, which may result into unnecessary loss of time and money. Bendazac, Bromfenac, Dilavelol, Pemoline, Temafloxacin and Trovafloxacin are examples of such medicines which are withdrawn from market due to their hepatic-toxicity (Waterbeemd and Gifford, 2003). To avoid these failures, *in silico* toxicity prediction tools are used prior to experimental studies. Most of these tools are statistical based on prior knowledge. Examples of currently available toxicity prediction tools are ToxiPred (Gupta *et al.*, 2013), OSIRIS Property Explorer (Mandal *et al.*, 2009) and Protox which is an *in silico* rodent oral toxicity prediction tool (Drwal *et al.*, 2014) etc.

3.7 Methods of Determining Resistance

3.7.1. Detection of genes

mecA and *femA* are two most common genes of *S. aureus*, which are generally present in resistant strains. These two genes have retained strong conservation among the methicillin-resistant strains (Vanuffel *et al.*, 1999; Murakami *et al.*, 1991; Akcam *et al.*, 2007; Rostamzad *et al.*, 2016). Several researchers reported different primers of *mecA* and *femA* gene and their different methods of detection of these genes. For *mecA* gene, mainly three sets of forward and reverse primers are reported, which code for 533, 286 and 310bp product, while in case of *femA* gene three, most common primers are reported which code for 509, 132 and 686 bp product. First set of primer for *mecA* was complimentary to 1283-1303 (5'AAA ATC GAT GGT AAA GGT TGG C 3') and 1793-1814 bp (5' AGT TCT GCA GTA CCG GAT TTG C 3') codes for 533 bp (Murakami *et al.*, 1991; Kobayashi *et al.*, 1994; Kampf *et al.*, 1999; Japoni *et al.*, 2004; Froberg *et al.*, 2004; Saiful *et al.*, 2006; Rallapali *et al.*, 2008; Xiong *et al.*, 2008; Mathew *et al.*,

Chapter 3: Review of Literature

2010; Islam *et al.*, 2011. Second set of primer for *mecA* was complimentary to 45813-45833 (5'TGC TAT CCA CCC TCA AAC AGG 3') and 46098-46078 (5' AAC GTT GTA ACC ACC CCA AGA 3') codes for 286 bp product (Kondo *et al.*, 2006; Ruppe *et al.*, 2009;Abimanyu *et al.*, 2013).Third set of primers for *mecA* gene is complimentary to 318-342bp (5'GAT GAA ATG ACT GAA CGT CCG ATA A 3')and 603-627 (5'CCA ATT CCA CAT TGT TTC GGT CTA A 3')which codes for 310 bp (Paule *et al.*, 2005; Kalhor *et al.*, 2012).

First set of primers for *femA* gene is complimentary to 595-614bp (5'AGA CAA ATA GGA GTA ATG AT 3') and 1084-1103 bp (5' AAA TCT AAC ACT GAG TGA TA 3') codes for 509 bp (Kobyashi *et al.*, 1994 but has not been used experimentally thereafter. Second set of primers which has been commonly used for *femA* gene detection is complimentary to 1444-1463 bp (5'AAA AAA GCA CAT AAC AAG CG 3') and 1556-1575 (5' GAT AAA GAA GAA ACC AGC AG 3') which codes for 132 bp (Mehrota *et al.*, 2000; Froberg *et al.*, 2004; Pelisser *et al.*, 2009; Mathew *et al.*, 2010; Duran *et al.*, 2012). Third set of *femA* gene primers is complimentary to (5' CTT ACT TAC TGG CTG TAC CTG 3') and (5' ATG TCG CTT GTT ATG TGC 3') codes for 686 bp product (Akcam *et al.*, 2009; Braoias *et al.*, 2009; Kitti *et al.*, 2011).

3.7.2. Minimal Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) Assay

Broth dilution methods are quantitative methods useful for microorganisms with the variable growth rate. The results are shown in terms of MIC values that are "lowest concentration that resulted in reduction of inoculum viability after a specific incubation time" (Carson *et al.*, 1995). The determination of the MIC involves a semi-quantitative test procedure which provides associate degree estimate to the least concentration of an antimicrobial required to stop microbial growth.

MIC is often determined by semi-automated microtitre method, having 96-wells or 384-wells configurations. Indicators used for determination of end point in broth dilution

Chapter 3: Review of Literature

methods are 2, 3, 5-triphenyl Tetrazolium chloride (TTC), 2,3-bis[2-methoxy-4-nitro-5-sulfophenyl]-2H-tetrazolium-5-carboxanilide inner salt (XTT), 2-[4-iodophenyl]-3-[4-dinitrophenyl]-5-phenyltetrazolium chloride (INT), 3-[4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl]-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT), fluorescein diacetate and resazurin (Chand *et al.*, 1994; Mann and Markham, 1998; Gabrielson *et al.*, 2002; Sarker *et al.*, 2007)

In this microplate well assay, the wells which do not exhibit a pinkish/red colouration due to formation of formazan, are interpreted as MIC (Sommers, 1980). Microbroth dilution method has various advantages over the traditional MIC determination method as it uses fewer amounts of media, simple in handling an oversized sample size, and it is more rapid and repeatable (CLSI, 1997).

Antibacterial activity of three Malaysian plants (*Piper sarmentosum*, *Moringa oleifera*, *Murraya koenigii*) using microbroth dilution method was performed for both gram-positive and gram-negative bacteria (*S. aureus*, *E. coli*, *P. aeruginosa* and *B. subtilis*) (Saad *et al.*, 2014). Comparative study of E-test, disc diffusion and microbroth dilution assay was performed for clinical and reference isolates of *S. aureus*, *E. coli* and *Pseudomonas* sp. to assess the reliability of *in vitro* susceptibility tests (Saxena and Gomber, 2008).

Antibacterial activity of 33 flavonoids against MRSA was examined by *in vitro* microbroth dilution method. Out of these 33 flavonoids, 11 compounds exhibited MIC range from 32 to 128 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$, while rest of compounds such as, baicalein, myricetin, datiscetin, quercetagenin, (-)-EGC and (-)-EGCG exhibited bactericidal activity with minimum bactericidal concentrations (MBC) varying from 64 to 128 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$. Only 3', 4'-dihydroxyflavone showed least MIC values ranged from 2-64 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ (Alcaraz *et al.*, 2000). Antibacterial activity of EGCG derivatives were evaluated for 17 *S. aureus* strains and MIC found to be $\geq 128 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ (Matsumoto *et al.*, 2012).

Chapter 3: Review of Literature

3.7.3. Checkerboard and FIC Index

Checkerboard method is widely used for evaluation of *in vitro* synergy for numerous drugs (Hsieh *et al.*, 1993). In checkerboard study, concentrations tested for each antibiotic are 4-5 two-fold dilutions below and above the estimated MIC. This test is performed in 96-well micro-titer plates. Similar stock concentration of drugs X & Y were diluted along the X-axis & Y-axis respectively, resulting into a unique combination of the two drugs being tested. Two columns of wells are reserved for control sets having the control organisms with no drug and control organism with known MIC for tested antibiotics (Krogstad and Moellering, 1986). MIC observed from checkerboard method among different combinations is used further for calculation of Fractional Inhibitory Concentration (FIC) values (Mandal *et al.*, 2004). FIC indices were calculated using the formula: FIC index = (MIC of drug X in combination/MIC of drug X alone) + (MIC of drug Y in combination/MIC of drug Y alone). In antimicrobial combination, synergy is defined as $\sum FIC \leq 0.5$, partial Synergy ≤ 0.5 , Partial synergy $> 0.5-1$, Indifference > 1 to < 2 and Antagonism as $\sum FIC \geq 2$ (Schelz *et al.*, 2006; Lee *et al.*, 2010).

To evaluate the synergy among different antibiotics or flavonoids or plant extracts with antibiotics checkerboard method has been used in various studies. Synergy between Phenothiazines and Oxacillin was investigated using checkerboard method for 10 MRSA isolates (Hadji-nejad *et al.*, 2010). Synergy of tetracycline, mupirocin, and fusidic acid with ECG, and Ethyl Gallate (EG) was observed using two MRSA and two MSSA strains of *S. aureus* (Soe *et al.*, 2009). Effect of several terpenes on β -lactam antibiotics such as Penicillins was studied by checkerboard method and FIC index determined against MRSA and *E. coli* strains. Total synergy was observed only with carvon a, terpene with FIC index of 0.0078 while rest of terpenes exhibited indifference or antagonism with MRSA strains (Gallucci *et al.*, 2006). Similarly, according to the comparative study of combination of derivatives of Cg such as ECG

Chapter 3: Review of Literature

and EGCG with Oxacillin and combination of non-galloylated catechins such as EC and EGC with Oxacillin in the presence of EC and EGC reported that non-galloylated catechins significantly increased the effect of ECG and EGCG against ORSA (Stapleton *et al.*, 2005).

3.7.4. Time kill curve

Time kill assay is used for studying the rate at which concentration of antibacterial agents such as antibiotics; combination of antibiotics, pure compounds and combination of pure compounds with antibiotics kills a bacterial test isolate. It is also used to study both concentration dependent and time dependent bactericidal activities.

In this assay bacterial isolate is grown in presence and absence of antibacterial agents, then fixed dilutions of 10 μ l is plated on nutrient agar plate and further incubated at 37°C for 18 h. Viable cells were counted in terms of Colony forming units (CFU) at specific intervals of time. Log of CFU ml⁻¹ are plotted graphically on y-axis with time intervals at x-axis.

Decrease of 3 log₁₀ (CFU ml⁻¹) folds indicates bactericidal activity (99.9% killing of inoculum) and decrease of ≥ 2 log₁₀ (CFU ml⁻¹) folds indicates synergy, while the increase of ≥ 2 log₁₀ (CFU ml⁻¹) folds represents antagonism (Schwalbe *et al.*, 2007; EUCAST, 2000; Miles and Misra, 1938). Estimation of viable counts at a specific time is an important factor for determining the drug dose in pharmacological studies.

Various antimicrobial agents in their pure form and in combinations have been subjected to time kill studies using *in vitro* microbroth dilution assay to evaluate their efficacy (May *et al.*, 2000; Climo *et al.*, 2001; Osburne *et al.*, 2006). Plant extracts have also been subjected to time kill studies to examine their efficacy as compared to standard antibiotics or their combinations for therapeutic use (Okemo *et al.*, 2001; Lipipun *et al.*, 2002; Farooqui *et al.*, 2015).

Chapter 3: Review of Literature

3.8 Analytical Techniques

3.8.1. High-Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC)

HPLC is a most widely used analytical technique for separation and purification of various pure and impure compounds from mixture. Separation in HPLC is based on different structure and composition of molecules (Kupiec, 2004). It was introduced by Russian botanist Tswett in 1930 for the separation of plant pigments. Later, in early 1940s, Martin and Synge reintroduced liquid-liquid chromatography for separation of acetyl amino acids (Scott, 2003). HPLC uses high pressure liquid for separation of sample mixture through a column filled with sorbent.

Sorbent of HPLC is generally a granular material of solid particles *viz.* silica. Pressurized liquid is generally the mixture of solvents in different composition, i.e. water, methanol, acetonitrile; this is also referred as mobile phase. Temperature and composition of solvents play a major role in the separation process by affecting the interactions between sorbent and sample. These interactions can be of various types like hydrophobic, ionic, dipole-dipole or combination of them (Gerber *et al.*, 2004).

HPLC plays an important and critical role in the field of pharmaceutical, and food-industry manufacturing, research and analysis, since it is used to carry out qualitative and quantitative analysis of raw ingredients used in the manufacture of drugs. Moreover, the importance of HPLC use in these fields falls under the stringent regulations established by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA). This obligates all pharmaceutical companies to detect the quality of their products by using the HPLC before allowing them to sell it in the global market (Hassan, 2012). It is also used in disease diagnosis. Urine is a most common source for analyzing drug concentration in the human body.

Chapter 3: Review of Literature

Similarly, blood serum is used for detection of diseases (Sundstrom *et al.*, 2013). HPLC is also used in solving legal matters like detection of doping agents, cocaine, opioids, BZDs, ketamine, drug metabolites; glucuronide conjugates, amphetamines, LSD, cannabis, and pesticides, etc. (Pelander *et al.*, 2003 and Kolmonen *et al.*, 2007). HPLC has also played a significant role in the study of chemical composition of bacterial cell wall. Initially, it was first applied for PG analysis by Bernd Glauner and the late Uli Schwarz (Abraham, 1984). *Caulobacter crescentus* was the first gram-negative bacteria in which first PG analysis study was performed by HPLC (Markiewicz *et al.*, 1983). Thereafter PG analysis was performed in *E. coli* by similar group (Glauner *et al.*, 1988). PG composition was first studied in MRSA isolates, with the help of HPLC by De Jonge group and they identified the functional role of PBP2a in cell wall synthesis (De Jonge and Tomasz, 1993).

3.8.2. Mass Spectrometry (MS)

Separation of compounds in mixture based on their structure and determination of structure of a compound is an essential and a never-ending quest in drug discovery, which can be fulfilled by techniques like mass spectroscopy. It is one of the most indispensable analytical techniques. As the name suggests, mass spectroscopy characterizes each of the components individually by providing information on the mass to charge ratio as well as on the structure of the analytes.

It works by ionizing chemical compounds to generate charged molecules or molecule fragments and measuring their mass-to-charge ratios (Sparkman, 2000). It was originally discovered by Eugen Goldstein in 1886 and later improved by J.J. Thomson, who created mass spectrograph by reducing the pressure (Downard, 2007). Presently, mass spectrometry, in its myriad forms, has become a vital analytical tool in research and development of pharmaceutical industry (Cai *et al.*, 2002). Its application extent in the entire drug discovery

Chapter 3: Review of Literature

and development process from target identification to lead identification to animal and human testing. As well as detection of peptides and proteins is also an important aspect in laboratory medicine (Hoofnagle, 2010).

First time analytical technique of reversed-phase HPLC with MS was applied in the Gram- negative bacteria for the analysis of muropeptides (Glauner *et al.*, 1988). While it was used to analyze the free cell wall stem peptides in *Streptococcus pneumoniae* (Bustos, *et al.*, 1987). HPLC and FABMS techniques was used to study the staphylococcal peptidoglycan generated from purified cell walls and confirmed the identity of pentaglycine chains as a main inter-peptide cross-bridge(De Jonge *et al.*, 1993). *Staphylococcus* muropeptide composition and the role of *FemX* protein in addition of first glycine to the pentaglycine inter-peptide was also analyzed by the MS studies (Rohrer *et al.*, 1999). Application of MS technique was also used with UPLC in peptidoglycan study of *E. coli* and *S. aureus* (Kuhner *et al.*, 2014).

Chapter 4: Materials and Methods

4.1 Structure Databases

Structural databases used during this study include, both protein and Ligand databases. RCSB protein database www.rcsb.org was used for retrieval of 3-D *FEMA* protein file in the PDB data format (i.e. PDB id 1LRZA and Uniprot id P0A0A5) (Berman *et al.*, 2000; Benson *et al.*, 2002; Kim *et al.*, 2012).

PubChem compound database www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/PCcompound was used to retrieve complete library of catechins as ligands (Bolton *et al.*, 2008). Ligand files were downloaded in the 3-D SDF data format.

4.2. Identifications of Binding Sites

For identification of reliable binding sites in *FemA* protein, following *in silico* active site prediction tools were used:

4.2.1 SiteHound

SiteHound is an online binding site identification tool based on interaction of chemical probe and protein structure. Probe may vary depending on ligand, currently carbon and phosphate probe is available. Modeller, AutoGrid and EasyMIFs are other tools, which are used for identification of binding sites and their structural features for input PDB file. SiteHound is available at <http://sitehound.sanchezlab.org> (Hernandez *et al.*, 2009)

4.2.2. QsiteFinder

It is an energy based-site detection tool, which uses interaction energy among Van der waal probe and protein to identify the energetically favored binding sites. Clustering of these sites is based on the spatial proximity, and then their ranking is based on the total sum of interaction energy of all sites within the cluster. It is online available at <http://www.bioinformatics.leeds.ac.uk/qsitefinder> (Laurie *et al.*, 2005).

Chapter 4: Materials and Methods

4.2.3. Pocket Finder

Its algorithm is similar to LlgSite algorithm, as written by same author (Hendlich *et al.*, (1997). It measures the degree to which each grid point is hidden inside the protein (i.e. total seven directions, out of which three in the x, y and z direction and remaining four in cubic diagonals). It is available at http://www.modelling.leeds.ac.uk/pocket_finder/ (Duka, 2013 and Laurie *et al.*, 2005)

4.2.4 CASTp (Computed atlas of surface topography of proteins)

It is an online tool for computation of pockets on protein surface and voids buried inside the protein. Its algorithm is based on solvent accessible surface model (Richards' surface), and molecular surface model (Connolly's surface) CASTp web server is freely available World at <http://www.cast.engr.uic.edu/> (Binkowski *et al.*, 2003 and Dundas *et al.*, 2006).

4.3 Docking Tools

4.3.1 Autodock Vina

Autodock Vina is a docking tool of Scripps Research Institute. It is available at <http://vina.scripps.edu>. It is the latest docking tool. It uses Pdbqt input files both for ligands as well as protein. Before docking there is a need to prepare a PDB or SDF data format files of proteins and ligands. In this study, used 1lrz.pdb target protein file as well as SDF ligand format files which were first converted to the Pdbqt data format, with the help of MGL tool. Along with format conversion, both protein and ligand files needed some more changes such as, deletion of all water molecules, addition of all hydrogen atoms, using no bond order method, and addition of charges.

However, in case of ligands, addition of all hydrogen atoms, including both polar and non-polar ones, addition of Gasteiger charges, merging of all non-polar charges, detection of aromatic carbons and rotatable bonds; settings of torsion forces are required.

Chapter 4: Materials and Methods

Center grid coordinates used were 35.829×63.416 ×94.89 while size used for x, y, z were 76×102×20, respectively (Fig. 4.1). Spacing used was 1.000 at different exhaustiveness values (Trott and Olson, 2009). Parameters used are given in Config file (Fig. 4.2. Appendix) Command used by AutoDock Vina was following: /cygdrive /c/Program\ Files/The\Scripps\Research\Institute\ Vina/ Vina --config conf.txt --log log.txt

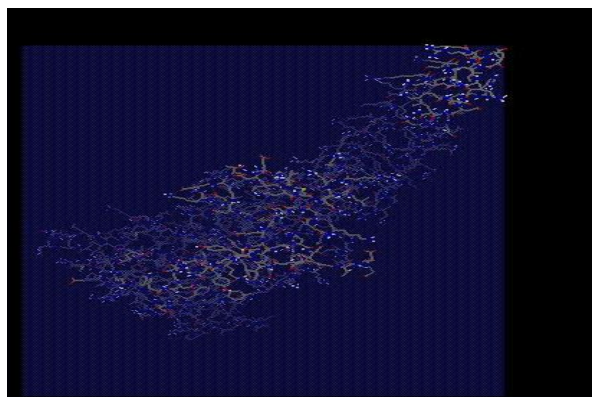


Fig. 4.1 Docking grid prepared by AutoDock Vina

4.3.2 Dock

Dock 6.5, a molecular docking program developed by UCSF Lab which is used in this study. It uses Mol2 data format files for both protein and ligand molecules. Both protein and ligand files were prepared by chimera software. In case of protein preparation, histidine protonation was done by selecting option of 'Unspecified determined by method' of dock prep module of chimera. While in case of ligand file's preparation, hydrogen atoms were added as well as AM1-bcc force field partial charges were assigned.

It has both options for using binding sites; user can define their own coordinates as well as calculates sphere clusters using Sphgen software. In this study, Sphgen was used for calculation of the binding site. It uses DMS software output file (receptor.ms) which consists of molecular surface of receptor, as well as INSPH file were used as input (Fig. 4.3. Appendix).

OUTSPH file generated by Sphgen consists of 78 clusters, out of these; cluster 1 having 111 spheres with their coordinates was used for generation of grid box file for 1LRZA protein (Fig. 4.4. Appendix). For visualization of spheres, first conversion of sphere file to PDB format was performed by show sphere program of dock by using showsph.in file (Fig. 4.5.

Chapter 4: Materials and Methods

Appendix) and then visualization was done by chimera software. For generation of the grid box, two input files are needed showbox.in and grid.in (Fig. 4.6 and Fig. 4.7 Appendix).

Docking was performed with all ligand files using grid spacing of 0.3 Å and input file rigid.in (Fig. 4.8 Appendix). Orientations of docking are ranked on the basis of molecular mechanics-like scoring function i.e. Dock score in case of UCSF Dock (Lang *et al.*, 2009).

4.4 *In silico* Interaction and Toxicity Studies

Protein residues forming hydrogen and hydrophobic interaction with the ligand molecule is further calculated by LigPlot+ software (Laskowski and Swindells, 2011)

4.4.1 Toxicological studies

To determine the toxic level of best *FemA* inhibitors, toxicity studies were performed by online tool, OSIRIS property explorer (<http://www.organicchemistry.org/prog/peo/>) during toxicological analysis various *in silico* tests were performed to detect the risk of mutagenicity, carcinogenicity, teratogenicity, irritants and reproductive effects.

These predictions depend on comparison between the pre-computed sets of structural moieties whose properties are already known with structural moieties of molecules loaded by the user on the server (Sander, 2014).

4.4.2. Lipinski filters

Lipinski filters or Lipinski rule of five distinguishes between drug like and non drug like molecules. It is also known as Pfizer's rule of five. It is a thumb rule to predict the probability of a chemical to be orally active drug in humans. According to this rule, molecular mass of the molecule should be < 500 Dalton, lipophilicity represented by LogP should be < 5, hydrogen bond donors (HBD) should be < 5; hydrogen bond acceptors (HBA) should be < 10 and molar refractivity (MR) should lie between 40-130. Molecule violating more than two rules is

Chapter 4: Materials and Methods

considered as non-drug molecule. Lipinski filtering was performed by Lipinski filter tool of SCFBIO at IITDelhi server (Jayaram).

4.5 Culture repository

4.5.1 Procurement of test isolates

The test cultures of *S. aureus* used in various experimental studies were obtained from IMTECH, Chandigarh.

4.5.2 Maintenance of cultures

Three standard strains of *Staphylococcus aureus* viz. NCTC6571, MTCC737 and MTCC96 were used in this study. The bacterial isolates were preserved in 30% glycerol stock and frozen at -70°C. These were recovered and sub-cultured on Mueller Hinton broth (MHB) and Mueller Hinton Agar (MHA) (HiMedia, India).

Stocks of the cultures were maintained on MHA at 4°C throughout the study. Sodium salts of antibiotics Oxacillin and Penicillin were procured from HiMedia, Mumbai. CG used in the study was obtained from Sigma Aldrich and dissolved in DMSO prior to use.

4.5.3 Preparation of 0.5 McFarland turbidity standard (CLSI, 1997)

0.5 McFarland standard is used to adjust the turbidity of the inoculum for the susceptibility test. It was prepared by addition of 0.5 ml of 0.048M BaCl₂ (Merck) to 99.5 ml of 0.18M H₂SO₄ (Merck) with constant stirring.

The optical density of the solution was recorded at 625 nm and should be in the range of 0.08-0.1. The McFarland solution was stored at room temperature in the amber-colored bottle to prevent photo-degradation. The shelf life of 0.5 McFarland solutions in the tightly sealed amber-colored bottle is up to six months.

Inoculum Preparation: Culture activation was carried out by streaking it on a MH agar plate, followed by overnight incubation at 37°C. A single colony was pulled out from this plate and

Chapter 4: Materials and Methods

transferred to MHB and incubated at 37°C for 18 h. Subsequently the culture was vortexed vigorously and compared with 0.5 McFarland standards against black stripes on white sheet to adjust visual turbidity. Sterile saline solution was used as diluents to adjust the visual turbidity of bacterial cultures prior to the test.

4.5.4: Growth curve studies of test isolate

Growth is an orderly increase to the number of microbial cells and quantity of cellular constituents. A growth curve clearly depicts the rate of microbial cell multiplication with respect to time. Standardization of growth pattern of microorganisms is thus of prime importance in clinical studies wherein time-kill assays are done to determine the reduction in bacterial cell count in presence of lead compound/antibiotic either by calculating \log_{10} CFU reduction or by a change in the optical density.

Growth curves studies of control and test isolate were carried out by Miles and Misra's method (Miles *et al.*, 1938). Nutrient agar plates which were divided into equal sectors were used. Each sector is labeled with different time interval of 0h, 3h, 6h, 9h, 12h, 15h, 18h, 20h and 24h. Three plates were needed for each strain. Inoculum is serially diluted by hundred time dilution and at every three-hour interval 20 μ l inoculum is dropped to the surface of agar plate at the respective intervals from a height of 2.5 cm.

Plates are left upright for dry for 15-20 min after drying inverted plates were incubated for 18–24 hours at 37°C. Each sector is observed for counting of colonies. Following equation was used for the calculation of number of CFU/ml from the original aliquot and calculation of generation time:

CFU per ml = Average number of colonies for a dilution x 100 x dilution factor.

Generation Time= $t / (3.3 \log b/B)$

Whereas,

Chapter 4: Materials and Methods

t=Time of growth, B= Number of bacteria at the beginning of time interval,

b= Number of bacteria at the end of time interval

4.6 *mecA* and *femA* characterization of the test isolates

4.6.1 Isolation of bacterial genomic DNA

Total DNA was isolated from 2ml overnight grown bacterial culture in MHB, and then taken into microcentrifuge tube. Centrifugation of microcentrifuge tubes, was performed for 5 min at 8000 rpm to obtain the bacterial pellet. The bacterial pellet was resuspended in 740 μ l of the buffer (pH 8.0) and further 20 μ l of (100mg/ml) lysozyme was added and mixture incubated for 5 min at room temperature.

After incubation, 40 μ l of 10% Sodium Dodecyl Sulphate (SDS) and 3 μ l of 20 mg/ml Proteinase K was added, mixed gently and incubated for 1 hr at 37 °C. Following this, first 100 μ l of 5M NaCl and then 100 μ l of 10% Cetyl trimethyl ammonium bromide (CTAB)-0.7 M NaCl solution were added and incubated the tubes for 10 min at 65 °C. After the incubation, 3 μ l of 10mg/ml RNase was added and incubated at 37 °C for 15 min.

Equivalent to the volume of the microcentrifuge tubes, equal volume of mixture of chloroform and isoamylalcohol in the ratio of 24:1 was added, mixed and centrifuged for 10 min at 10,000 rpm. Upper aqueous phase of these microcentrifuge tubes was transferred to the new microcentrifuge tube and equal volume of phenol: chloroform: isoamyl alcohol mixture in the ratio of 25:24:1 was added, mixed and then centrifugation was repeated, for 10 min at 10,000 rpm.

The upper aqueous phase was then transferred to the new microcentrifuge tube and 0.6 volume of cold isopropanol was added, mixed gently and incubated for 30 min at 4 °C, for maximum DNA precipitation. After the incubation, obtain DNA pellet was collected by centrifugation for 15 min at 12,000 rpm. Washing of DNA was performed with 70% cold

Chapter 4: Materials and Methods

ethanol and finally DNA was resuspended in 30 µl TE buffer and kept overnight at 4°C. Subsequently, DNA was stored at -20°C for future use.

4.6.2 PCR for the detection of *mecA* and *femA*

Two sets of primers were used for this study. Forward Primer of first pair of primers was derived from the *mecA* gene region, corresponded to the nucleotides 1283-1303 bp (5'AAA ATC GAT GGT AAA GGT TGG C 3') and the reverse primer was complementary to nucleotide 1793-1814 bp (5' AGT TCT GCA GTA CCG GAT TTG C 3') (Murakami *et al.*, 1991; Kobayashi *et al.*, 1994; Kampf *et al.*, 1999; Japoni *et al.*, 2004; Froberg *et al.*, 2004; Saiful *et al.*, 2006; Rallapali *et al.*, 2008; Li *et al.*, 2008; Mathew *et al.*, 2010; Islam *et al.*, 2011).

Forward primer of second set of primer was derived from the region of the *femA* gene, which was corresponded to nucleotides 1444-1463 bp (5'AAA AAA GCA CAT AAC AAG CG 3') and the reverse primer was complementary to nucleotide 1556-1575 (5' GAT AAA GAA GAA ACC AGC AG 3') (Mehrota *et al.*, 2000; Froberg *et al.*, 2004; Pelisser *et al.*, 2009; Mathew *et al.*, 2010; Duran *et al.*, 2012).

For the first set of primers, polymerase chain reaction comprises of 50 ng 1 µl target DNA, 2 µl of 10X PCR buffer, 1 µl of 10mM dNTP mixture, 2 µl of 25mM MgCl₂, 2 µl of 10µM each *mecA* forward and reverse primer. Final mixture reaction was supplemented with 2U of Taq DNA polymerase and sterile ddH₂O to make the final volume of 20 µl. PCR was carried out in automated thermocycler. After an initial denaturation of 5 min at 95°C, 30 cycles of amplification was carried out as follows : Denaturation at 94 °C for 30 s, Annealing at 55 °C for 30s, Extension at 72 °C for 30 s, followed by additional cycle of extension for 15 min at 72 °C to complete partial polymerizations.

Similarly, for second set of primers, the same amount of target DNA, 5 µl of 10X PCR buffer, 1 µl of 10mM dNTP mixture, 6 µl of 25mM MgCl₂, 1 µl of 10µM each *femA* forward and

Chapter 4: Materials and Methods

reverse primer. Final mixture reaction was supplemented with 1U of Taq DNA polymerase and sterile ddh₂O to make the final volume of 50 µl.

PCR was carried out in same automated thermocycler. After an initial denaturation of 5 min at 95 °C, 30 cycles of amplification was carried out as follows : Denaturation at 94°C for 5 min, Annealing at 58°C for 2 min, Extension at 72°C for 3 min, followed by additional cycle of extension for 15 min. at 72 °C to complete partial polymerizations. Both amplified products were analyzed using 1.5% gel.

4.7 *In vitro* susceptibility studies of *S. aureus* isolates

4.7.1 *In vitro* microbroth dilution assay: determination of MIC

The minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) of Penicillin, Oxacillin and CG was determined using *in vitro* microbroth dilution assay using 96 well titer plate's (EUCAST, 2003). Briefly, 16-20 h old culture suspensions of all the test microorganisms were adjusted with 0.5 McFarland solution using sterile physiological saline (0.85% NaCl) to achieve a final bacterial count of approximately 10⁵ CFU/ml⁻¹ of *S. aureus* NCTC 6571, *S. aureus* MTCC 737 and *S. aureus* MTCC 96 bacterial suspension was then added to 125 µl MHB in control (Ctrl) wells as well as test wells (rows 1-4, 5-8 and 9-12) respectively.

Well, number A1, B1 and C1 was Ctrl set for *S. aureus* NCTC 6571, similarly well number A5, B5 and C5 for *S. aureus* MTCC 737 and A9, B9, C9 for MTCC 96. Test wells for *S. aureus* NCTC 6571, *S. aureus* MTCC 737 and *S. aureus* MTCC 96 were designated from D1-C4, D5 to C8, D9-C12. D-H wells with row id's 4, 8 and 12 were blanks (Fig. 4.7.1).

The titer-plates were then incubated for 3 h at 37 °C and then 25 µl of eight different concentrations of antibiotic was added in test wells (D1-C4) for *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 , (D5-C8) for *S. aureus* MTCC 737 and (D9-C12) for *S. aureus* MTCC 96 and 25 µl of sterile physiological saline was added in all Ctrl wells. Same conditions and template were used for all antibiotics

Chapter 4: Materials and Methods

(Penicillin/Oxacillin) and the test compound in individual titer-plates. Antibiotic Oxacillin was tested for 500 µg/ml to 3.9 µg/ml concentrations, while Penicillin was tested for 8000-62.5 µg/ml CG was tested for 250-0.975 µg/ml. After 24 hr of incubation 30 µl of 0.02% Triphenyl Tetrazolium Chloride (TTC) was added as indicator in all wells and then MIC was observed. All concentrations were tested in triplicates (EUCAST 2000; EUCAST 2003; Andrews, 2001).

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
A	Ctrl	C2s1	C5s1	C8s1	Ctrl	C2s2	C5s2	C8s2	Ctrl	C2s3	C5s3	C8s3
B	Ctrl	C3s1	C5s1	C8s1	Ctrl	C3s2	C5s2	C8s2	Ctrl	C3s3	C5s3	C8s3
C	Ctrl	C3s1	C6s1	C8s1	Ctrl	C3s2	C6s2	C8s2	Ctrl	C3s3	C6s3	C8s3
D	C1s1	C3s1	C6s1	Blank	C1s2	C3s2	C6s2	Blank	C1s3	C3s3	C6s3	Blank
E	C1s1	C4s1	C6s1	Blank	C1s2	C4s2	C6s2	Blank	C1s3	C4s3	C6s3	Blank
F	C1s1	C4s1	C7s1	Blank	C1s2	C4s2	C7s2	Blank	C1s3	C4s3	C7s3	Blank
G	C2s1	C4s1	C7s1	Blank	C2s2	C4s2	C7s2	Blank	C2s3	C4s3	C7s3	Blank
H	C2s1	C5s1	C7s1	Blank	C2s2	C5s2	C7s2	Blank	C2s3	C5s3	C7s3	Blank

Fig. 4.7.1: Microtitre plate template for *in vitro* microbroth dilution assay for determination of MIC (Ctrl-Control-uninoculated MH broth, C1-C8-Eight dilution of Concentration (highest to lowest), s1-*S. aureus* NCTC 6571, s2- *S. aureus* MTCC 737, s3- *S. aureus* MTCC 96)

4.7.2 Checkerboard Assay and FIC Index

Checkerboard assay was carried out to evaluate the synergistic potential of CG with β -lactam antibiotics (Penicillin and Oxacillin) in different concentrations for possible use as a formulation. The synergistic activity was further determined by the FIC index (Sato *et al.*, 2004). Five different dilutions 2MIC, MIC, 1/2MIC, 1/4MIC and 1/8MIC of antibiotics and test compound combinations were used in this experiment.

The concentration range of antibiotics for the checkerboard assay was between 1000 µg/ml to 62.5 µg/ml except for Penicillin which exhibited a MIC of 8000 µg/ml and hence tested from 16000 µg/ml to 1000 µg/ml. Similarly, concentration range for CG was 125 µg/ml

Chapter 4: Materials and Methods

to 7.8 µg/ml for *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 and *S. aureus* MTCC 96 while, it was 250 µg/ml to 15.6 µg/ml for *S. aureus* MTCC 737.

Each well was dispensed with 125 µl MHB and 50 µl of culture inoculum having 10^5 CFU/ml. After 3 h of incubation, 12.5 µl of CG of the combination was serially diluted along the well number (A7-G9) in a set of fifteen consecutive wells and 12.5 µl of the second drug (either Oxacillin or Penicillin) was also diluted in a set of three consecutive wells along the well number (A7-B9, B10-C12, D1-E3, E4-F6, and F7-G9) of titer plate and then titer-plates were incubated for 24 h at 37°C under aerobic conditions (Fig. 4.7.2).

Subsequently, addition of 30 µl of TTC as an indicator in each well except blanks and incubated for another 1 h. The resulting combinations of two antibiotics were checked for MIC and complete assay was performed in triplicates (Bajaksouzian *et al.*, 1997; Orhan *et al.*, 2005).

Further FIC Index was calculated using following equation: = $FIC_{(A)} + FIC_{(B)}$

Whereas,

$FIC_{(A)}$ = (MIC A in presence of B/MIC A alone)

$FIC_{(B)}$ = (MIC B in the presence of A/MIC B alone).

Correlations between FIC and the effect on the combination of antibacterial agents were indicated: Synergy ≤ 0.5 , Partial synergy $> 0.5-1$, Indifference >1 to <2 and Antagonism ≥ 2 (EUCAST 2000; Lee *et al.*, 2010)

Chapter 4: Materials and Methods

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
A	Ctrl1	Ctrl1	Ctrl1	Ctrl2	Ctrl2	Ctrl2	2MIC TC+ 2MIC (P/O)	2MIC TC+ 2MIC (P/O)	2MIC TC+ 2MIC (P/O)	2MIC TC+ MIC (P/O)	2MIC TC+ MIC (P/O)	2MIC TC+ MIC (P/O)	
B	2MIC TC+ 1/2MIC (P/O)	2MIC TC+ 1/2MIC (P/O)	2MIC TC+ 1/2MIC (P/O)	2MIC TC+ 1/4MIC (P/O)	2 MIC TC+ 1/4MIC (P/O)	2MIC TC+ 1/4MIC (P/O)	2 MIC TC+ 1/8MIC (P/O)	2MIC TC+ 1/8MIC (P/O)	2MIC TC+ 1/8MIC (P/O)	MIC TC+ 2MIC (P/O)	MIC TC+ 2MIC (P/O)	MIC TC+ 2MIC (P/O)	
C	MIC TC+ MIC (P/O)	MIC TC+ MIC (P/O)	MIC TC+ MIC (P/O)	MIC TC+ 1/2MIC (P/O)	MIC TC+ 1/2MIC (P/O)	MIC TC+ 1/2MIC (P/O)	MIC TC+ 1/4MIC (P/O)	MIC TC+ 1/4MIC (P/O)	MIC TC+ 1/4MIC (P/O)	MIC TC+ 1/8MIC (P/O)	MIC TC+ 1/8MIC (P/O)	MIC TC+ 1/8MIC (P/O)	
D	1/2MIC TC+ 2MIC (P/O)	1/2MIC TC+ 2MIC (P/O)	1/2MIC TC+ 2MIC (P/O)	1/2MIC TC+ MIC (P/O)	1/2MIC TC+ MIC (P/O)	1/2MIC TC+ +MIC (P/O)	1/2MIC TC+ 1/2MIC (P/O)	1/2MIC TC+ 1/2MIC (P/O)	1/2MIC TC+ 1/2MIC (P/O)	1/2MIC TC+ 1/4MIC (P/O)	1/2MIC TC+ 1/4MIC (P/O)	1/2MIC TC+ 1/4MIC (P/O)	
E	1/2MIC TC+ 1/8MIC (P/O)	1/2MIC TC+ 1/8MIC (P/O)	1/2MIC TC+ 1/8MIC (P/O)	1/4MIC TC+ 2MIC (P/O)	1/4MIC TC+ 2MIC (P/O)	1/4MIC TC+ 2MIC (P/O)	1/4MIC TC+ MIC (P/O)	1/4MIC TC+ MIC (P/O)	1/4MIC TC+ MIC (P/O)	1/4MIC TC+ MIC (P/O)	1/4MIC TC+ 1/2MIC (P/O)	1/4MIC TC+ 1/2MIC (P/O)	1/4MIC TC+ 1/2MIC (P/O)
F	1/4MIC TC+ 1/4MIC (P/O)	1/4MIC TC+ 1/4MIC (P/O)	1/4MIC TC+ 1/4MIC (P/O)	1/4MIC TC+ 1/8MIC (P/O)	1/4MIC TC+ 1/8MIC (P/O)	1/4MIC TC+ 1/8MIC (P/O)	1/8MIC TC+ 2MIC (P/O)	1/8MIC TC+ 2MIC (P/O)	1/8MIC TC+ 2MIC (P/O)	1/8MIC TC+ MIC (P/O)	1/8MIC TC+ MIC (P/O)	1/MIC TC+ MIC (P/O)	
G	1/8MIC TC+1/2 MIC (P/O)	1/8MIC TC+1/2 MIC (P/O)	1/8MIC TC+1/2 MIC (P/O)	1/8MIC TC+ 1/4MIC (P/O)	1/8MIC TC+1 /4MIC (P/O)	1/8MIC TC+ 1/4MIC (P/O)	1/8MIC TC+ 1/8MIC (P/O)	1/8MIC TC+ 1/8MIC (P/O)	1/8MIC TC+1/8 MIC (P/O)	Blank	Blank	Blank	
H	Blank	Blank	Blank	Blank	Blank	Blank	Blank	Blank	Blank	Blank	Blank	Blank	

Fig. 4.7.2: Microtitre plate template for checkerboard assay for determination of FIC
(Ctrl 1-Control1, Ctrl 2-Control 2, TC-Test Compound, P- Penicillin, O-Oxacillin)

Chapter 4: Materials and Methods

4.7.3 Time Kill Assay of Synergistic Formulations

The time kill assay was used to ascertain the efficacy to kill the bacteria in terms of reduction in the CFU count/ml. It was performed only in the cases exhibiting a synergistic effect of the CG with the antibiotic by the checkerboard method. Miles and Misra plate count method (Miles *et al.*, 1938) was used to ascertain the bacterial count of different treatments. Briefly, the method comprised of withdrawing a 20 μ l aliquot from each test sample under aseptic conditions using sterile tips at different time intervals viz. 0, 6, 12, 18 and 24 h.

The aliquots were placed on a MH plate as a single drop and observed for the growth of bacteria as pin head colonies after incubation of 12-18 h at 37°C. These were counted to arrive to CFU/ml of the test sets at different time intervals. Decrease of $\geq 2\text{-log}_{10}$ CFU count indicates synergy, decrease of $\leq 2\text{-log}_{10}$ CFU count indicates additivity while the increase of $\leq 2\text{-log}_{10}$ CFU count indicates antagonism with the combinations compared with control sample having no antibiotics (Barry *et al.*, 1999; Peterson *et al.*, 2006; Sopirala *et al.*, 2010).

4.8 Evaluation of functional Expression of *FemA* protein

4.8.1 Peptidoglycan (PGN) cell wall extraction

2 ml 16-24h old culture suspension with $OD_{578} < 10$ was taken to obtain 300 ml purified PGN. Suspension grown in the absence of antibiotics was used as control, while suspensions having presence of antibiotics and test compound (CG) in different formulations were taken as test samples. All Control and test samples were taken in a 2 ml microcentrifuge tube and centrifugation was performed for 5 min at 10,000 rpm. The pellets so obtained were resuspended in 1 ml 0.25% SDS solution in 0.1 M Tris/HCl (pH 6.8) and the resulting suspension was boiled for 20 min at 100 °C in a heating block.

Centrifugation of above suspension for 5 min at 10,000 rpm was performed, and then two times washing with 1.5 ml ddH₂O. After washing pellets they were resuspended in 1 ml

Chapter 4: Materials and Methods

ddH₂O in respective microcentrifuge tube. Ultrasonication of all the samples performed for 2-4 min. Subsequently, 500 µl of solution B (15 µg/ml DNase and 60 µg/ml RNase in 0.1 M Tris/HCl, pH 6.8) was added and samples were incubated for 60 min, at 37 °C in a shaker. Subsequently, 500 µl of solution C (50 µg/ml trypsin in ddH₂O) was added and incubated for the additional 60 min under similar conditions.

For the inactivation of enzymes, suspension was boiled for 3 min at 100 °C in a heating block. Centrifugation of samples was performed for 5 min at 10,000 rpm and pellet obtained was washed with 1 ml ddH₂O. To release the WTA (Wall Teichoic Acid), pellet was resuspended in 500 µl of 1 M HCl and incubated for 4 h at 37 °C in a shaker. The suspension obtained was centrifuged for 5 min at 10,000 rpm. Pellet washing was performed with ddH₂O until pH between 5-6 was not achieved for the supernatant. Afterwards, pellet was resuspended in 100-250 µl digestion buffer (12.5 mM sodium dihydrogen-phosphate, pH 5.5) to obtain the OD₅₇₈ of 3.0. Afterwards, 1/10th volume of the digestion buffer of mutanolysin solution (5.000 U/ml of mutanolysin in ddH₂O) was added.

The samples were then incubated for 16hrs at 37°C on a shaking incubator with 150 rpm. Inactivation of mutanolysin was performed by boiling the samples at 100 °C for 3 min, and subsequently the samples were centrifuged for 5 min at 10,000 rpm and extract the supernatant for future use and preserve the samples in -20 °C. (Kuhner *et al.*, 2014).

4.8.2 Derivatization of Samples

Before applying the sample to the nLC system, reduction of MurNAc to NAc-muraminitol is essential. 50 µl of reduction solution (10 mg/ml sodium borohydrate in 0.5 M borax in ddH₂O at pH 9.0) was added. Then the samples were incubated at room temperature for 20 min. Reaction was stopped with addition of 10 µl phosphoric acid (98%). The resulting pH must lie between 2 and 3. Then analysis of samples was then carried out by nLC-MS (Table 4.8.2.1).

Chapter 4: Materials and Methods

Table 4.8.2.1 nLC-MS samples with nLC-MS code and their description

Sr. No.	Code	MS-CODE	Strains
1	6C	DIVYA_A1Z	<i>S. aureus</i> NCTC 6571
2	6FCO	DIVYA_B1Z	<i>S. aureus</i> NCTC 6571(Ox 62.5 µg/ml+ CG7.8 µg/ml)
3	6FCP	DIVYA_C1Z	<i>S. aureus</i> NCTC 6571(P 2000 µg/ml + CG 7.8 µg/ml)
4	7C	DIVYA_D1Z	<i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 737
5	7FCO	DIVYA_E1Z	<i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 737 (Ox 62.5µg/ml + CG 31.5 µg/ml)
6	9C	DIVYA_F1Z	<i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 96
7	9FCO	DIVYA_G1Z	<i>S. aureus</i> MTCC 96 (Ox 125 µg/ml + CG 7.8 µg/ml)

4.8.3 LC-MS Analysis

The reconstitution of peptides were performed in 0.1% formic acid in LC-MS grade water and subjected to nLC (Nano-Advance, Bruker, Germany) followed by identification by captive ion source (Bruker Daltonics) spray in Maxis-HD qTOF (Bruker, Germany) mass spectrometer (MS) with high mass accuracy and sensitivity. The peptides were enriched by nano trap column (Acclaim Pep Map, particle size-5µm, pore size-100Å, Thermo Scientific) and separated on an analytical column (KYA Tech, 0.1x150mm, 3µm particle size and 200Å pore size) with a flow rate of 400 nL/min.

Solvent A used was 100% water in 0.1% formic acid, and solvent B used was 100% acetonitrile in 0.1% formic acid. 57 min gradient was used which ranges from 5-95% acetonitrile. The mass spectrometer was operated in data-dependent acquisition mode for MS acquisition. The precursor ion scan MS spectra was carried out at m/z ranges of 400-2200 were acquired in the Q-TOF with resolution R = 75 000.

5.1 Structure Databases

RCSB-PDB database was used to download the structure format files of *FemA* protein (i.e. 1LRZA) in PDB format. *FemA* (Aminoacyltransferase *FemA*) protein sequence is 426 amino acids long and having molecular weight of 50.03 KDa. It is translated by *femA* gene. Classification databases, SCOP, CATH and INTERPRO have divided *FemA* protein into three domains but with different names.

According to the SCOP classification, first domain (d1lrza1) is made up of all α -helices having long α -hairpin fold and belong to tRNA-binding arm and named as Methicillin resistance protein *FemA* probable tRNA-binding arm (65 residue long). Second (d1lrza2) and third domain(d1lrza3) are made up of Alpha and β -proteins (a+b) having Acyl-CoA N-acyltransferases fold and belong to Acyl-CoA N-acyltransferases family and named as *FemXAB* nonribosomal peptidyltransferases (165 and 170 residue respectively) with [TaxId: 1280](Fig.5.1).

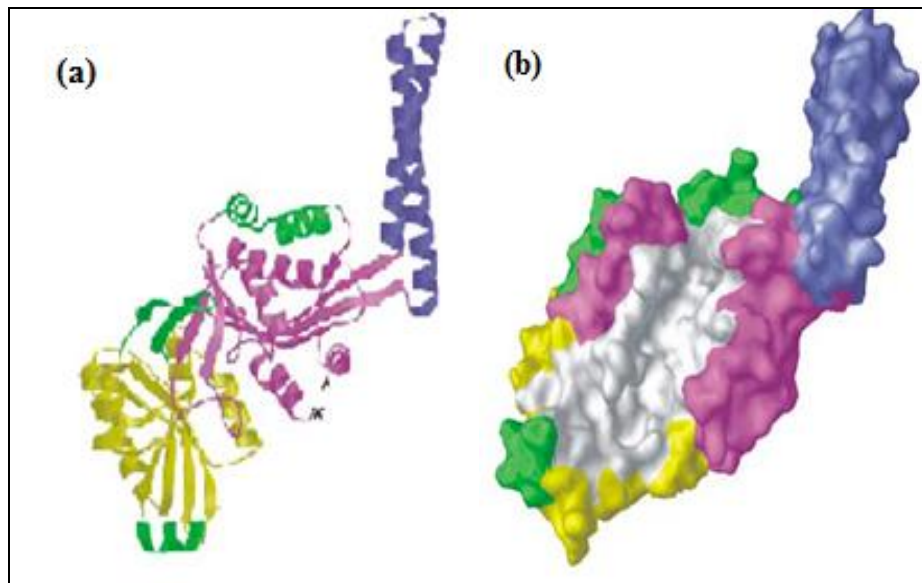
Similarly, CATH database has classified into three domains, first (1lrza01) and second (1lrza02) domain both are made up of α and β proteins and both belong to aminopeptidase topology and homology while 3rd domain (1lrza03) is made up of only α -proteins and belongs to Methane Monooxygenase Hydroxylase; Chain G, domain one topology and homology.

InterPro database has classified three domains into tRNA-binding arm [IPR010978] *FemABX* peptidyl transferase [IPR003447] Acyl-CoA N-acyltransferase [IPR016181]. In this way sequentially it has three domains Acyl-CoA N-acyltransferase, *FemABX* peptidyl-transferase and tRNA-binding arm while structurally it has two domains *FemXAB* non-ribosomal peptidyl-transferases and Methicillin resistance protein *FemA* probable tRNA-binding arm. *FemA* protein is divided into two domains, domain 1 is divided into two sub-domains 1A

Chapter 5: Results

represented in yellow color (residues 1–110, 129–144, and 396–401) and sub-domain 1B, represented in magenta color (residues 145–166, 189–245, and 308–395) with some additional secondary structure elements, which has been shown in green color (residues 111–128, 167–188, and 402–412) and Domain 2, is represented in blue color (residues 246–307)(Fig. 5.1). According to Dictionary of Protein Secondary Structure (DSSP) *FemA* protein, are 42% helical (16 helices made up of 180 residues) and 23% β -sheets (18 strands made up of 100 residues) and rest residues either made turn or bends (Fig 5.1).

PubChem compound database www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/PCcompound was used to retrieve complete library of catechins as ligands. PubChem database consists of total 116 Ligand files out of which 14 ligands are present only in 2-D structure; there 3-D structures were not present. Further from these 102 ligand files which are present in 3-D SDF data format can be used for docking. Among 102 catechin isomers; only 15 ligand molecules are commercially attainable. Due to non-availability of these 87 catechin isomers chemically they are filtered out further. Details of ligands are given in Table 5.2, which were used throughout this study.



Chapter 5: Results

Fig. 5.1 Structure of *S.aureus* in two domains (a) Cartoon View (b) Surface View having L-shaped (white) substrate binding domain

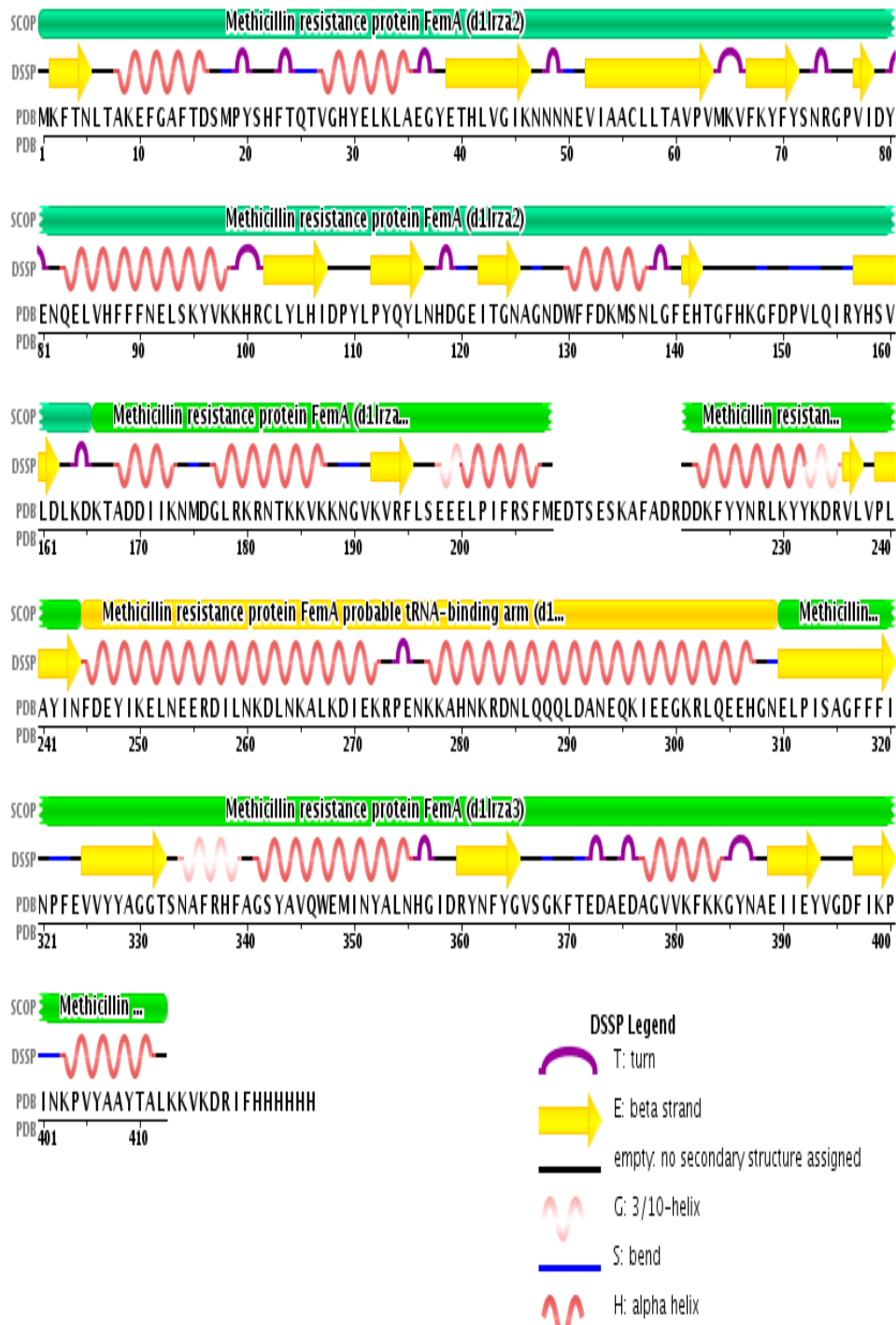


Fig. 5.1 *S. aureus* FemA protein sequence and secondary structure in three domains

Chapter 5: Results

Table 5.1 Summary of Catechin isomers

Sr. No.	CID	Name	IUPAC	MW & MF
1	6419835	(-)-Catechin gallate; AC1O4WEY ...	[(2S,3R)-2-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)-5,7-dihydroxy-3,4-dihydro-2H-chromen-3-yl] 3,4,5-trihydroxybenzoate	MW: 442.372320 g/mol MF: C22H18O10
2	5276454	(-)-Catechin gallate; XEG	[(2R,3S)-2-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)-5,7-dihydroxy-3,4-dihydro-2H-chromen-3-yl] 3,4,5-trihydroxybenzoate	MW: 442.372320 g/mol MF: C22H18O10
3	107905	Epicatechin gallate; (-)-Epicatechin gallate; (-)-Epicatechin-3-gallate ...	[(2R,3R)-2-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)-5,7-dihydroxy-3,4-dihydro-2H-chromen-3-yl] 3,4,5-trihydroxybenzoate	MW: 442.372320 g/mol MF: C22H18O10
4	182232	(+)-Epicatechin; 35323-91-2; ent-Epicatechin ...	(2S,3S)-2-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)-3,4-dihydro-2H-chromene-3,5,7-triol	MW: 290.268060 g/mol MF: C15H14O6
5	12309507	L-Epicatechin; 490-46-0	(2S)-2-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)-3,4-dihydro-2H-chromene-3,5,7-triol	MW: 290.268060 g/mol MF: C15H14O6
6	73160	(-)-Catechin; (-)-Catechol; CATECHIN, ALPHA ...	(2S,3R)-2-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)-3,4-dihydro-2H-chromene-3,5,7-triol	MW: 290.268060 g/mol MF: C15H14O6
7	289	catechol; pyrocatechol; 1,2-benzenediol ...	benzene-1,2-diol	MW: 110.110640 g/mol MF: C6H6O2
8	122738	Procyanidin B2; Procyanidol B2; Proanthocyanidin B2	(2R,3R)-2-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)-8-[(2R,3R,4R)-2-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)-3,5,7-trihydroxy-3,4-dihydro-2H-chromen-4-yl]-3,4-dihydro-2H-chromene-3,5,7-triol	MW: 578.520240 g/mol MF: C30H26O12
9	9064	CATECHIN; Cianidanol; (+)-Catechin	(2R,3S)-2-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)-3,4-dihydro-2H-chromene-3,5,7-	MW: 290.268060 g/mol MF:

Chapter 5: Results

			triol	C15H14O6
10	65064	(-)-Epigallocatechin gallate; EGCG; Epigallocatechin gallate; 989-51-5; Epigallocatechin 3-gallate; Epigallocatechin-3-gallate	[(2R,3R)-5,7-dihydroxy-2-(3,4,5-trihydroxyphenyl)-3,4-dihydro-2H-chromen-3-yl] 3,4,5-trihydroxybenzoate	MW: 458.371720 g/mol MF: C22H18O11
11	107957	Catechin hydrate;(+) - Catechin Hydrate	(2R,3S)-2-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)-3,4-dihydro-2H-chromene-3,5,7-triol;hydrate	MW: 308.283340 g/mol MF: C15H16O7
12	367141	(-)-epicatechingallate; Epicatechin gallate; NSC636594; ChEMBL328085;	[2-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)-5,7-dihydroxy-3,4-dihydro-2H-chromen-3-yl] 3,4,5-trihydroxybenzoate	MW: 442.372320 g/mol MF: C22H18O10
13	1203	DL-Catechin; NSC81746; L-Epicatechin	2-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)-3,4-dihydro-2H-chromene-3,5,7-triol	MW: 290.268060 g/mol MF: C15H14O6
14	72276	Epicatechin; (-)-Epicatechin; L-Epicatechin; (-)-Epicatechol	(2R,3R)-2-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)-3,4-dihydro-2H-chromene-3,5,7-triol	MW: 290.268060 g/mol MF: C15H14O6
15	255538	Epi-Catechol; L-Epicatechin; Epicatechol, (-)-; NSC81161; (.+.)-Epicatechol; AC1L5SMJ;	(3R)-2-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)-3,4-dihydro-2H-chromene-3,5,7-triol	MW: 290.268060 g/mol MF: C15H14O6

5.2. Identification of Binding Sites

5.2.1. SiteHound

SiteHound tool predicted 10 pockets in the 3-D structure of *FemA* protein, while; only three pockets are found in L-domain (Table 5.2 and Fig. 5.3). It predicted all active site residues of the pocket, energy, volume of pocket and X, Y, Z coordinates of pocket.

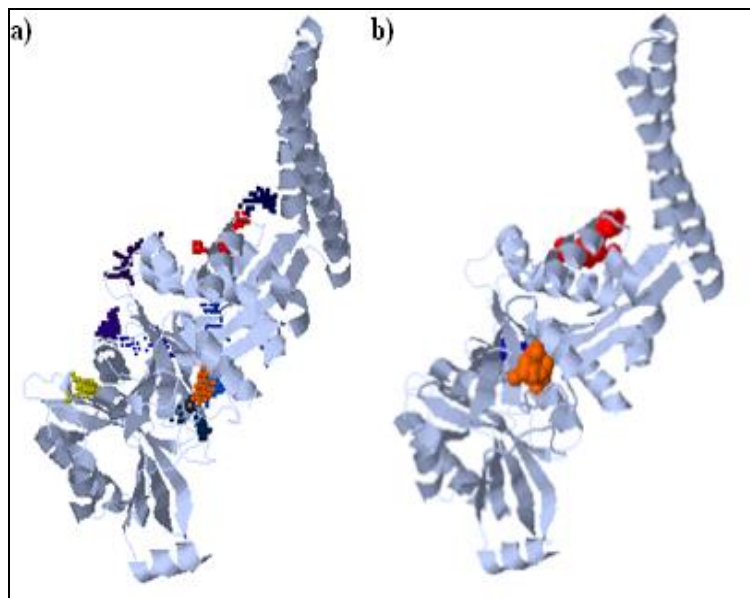


Fig. 5.3 Active sites predicted by SiteHound tool (a) total active sites (b) active sites in L-domain

Table 5.2 Details of active sites in L-domain as predicted by SiteHound tool

Pocket No.	Active site Residues	Energy	Volume	Coordinates
1	186-193, 195,242,251, 344,347,348,351	-775.97	67.00	42.811 80.746 95.313
2	48,119,367-372, 376, 377,380,381,384	-615.26	48.00	47.162 55.021 108.973
7	9,12-13,15-16,23,26- 28,31, 231-235,319,321	-499.14	45.00	21.583 65.272 84.445

5.2.2. Q-SiteFinder

Q-SiteFinder tool predicted 10 pockets in the 3-D structure of *FemA* protein, while only five pockets are found in L-domain (Table 5.3 and Fig. 5.4). It predicted all active site residues of the pocket, volume of pocket and minimum and maximum X, Y, Z coordinates of the pocket.

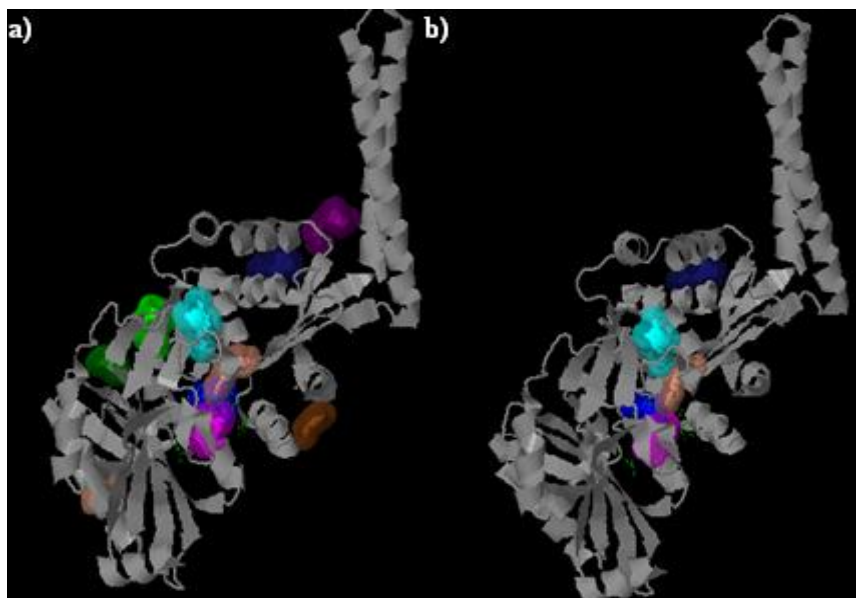


Fig. 5.4 Active sites predicted by Q-SiteFinder tool (a) total active sites (b) active sites in L-domain

Table 5.3 Details of active sites in L-domain as predicted by Q-SiteFinder tool

Pocket No.	Active site residues	Minimum Coordinates	Maximum Coordinates	Site Volume (Cubic Å)
1	118-120	40,48,99	54,64,116	202
4	12,16,23,26-29,31,231-235,321	15,57,75	32,73,91	186
5	183,186-187,191-193,343-345, 347- 348,351-352,355	31,72,89	50,86,103	185
7	22,23-24, 29,33,71,73-74, 108,154,224,228,232,319,328	39,55,69	49,72,82	184
8	149,155,327-330	35,55,69	49,72,82	147

5.2.3. PocketFinder

PocketFinder tool predicted 10 pockets in the 3-D structure of *FemA* protein, while only five pockets are found in L-domain (Table 5.4 and Fig. 5.5). It predicted all active site residues of the pocket, volume of pocket and minimum and maximum X, Y, Z coordinates of the pocket similar to the Q-SiteFinder.

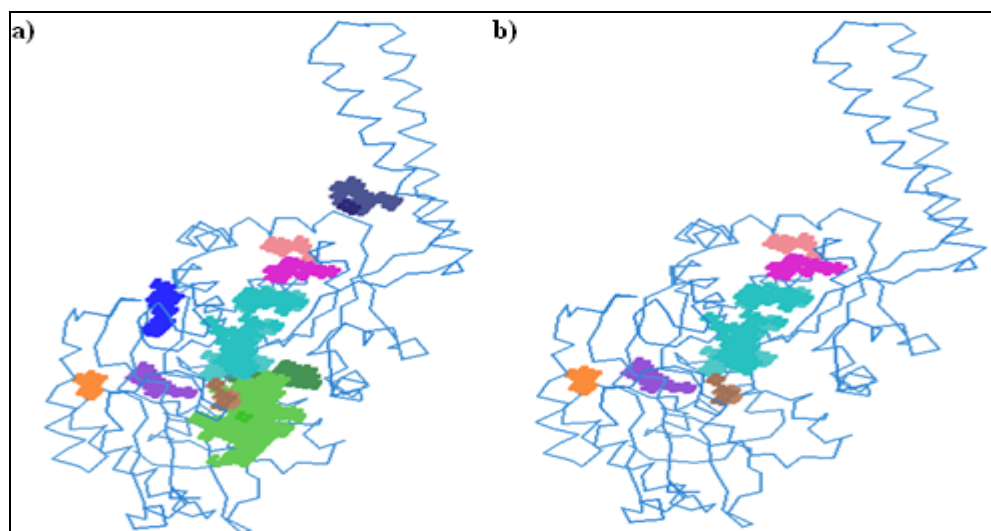


Fig. 5.5 Active sites predicted by PocketFinder tool (a) total active sites (b) active sites in L-domain

Table 5.4 Details of active sites in L-domain as predicted by PocketFinder tool

Pocket No.	Active site residues	Minimum Coordinates	Maximum Coordinates	Site Volume (Cubic Å)
1	74,149,154,158,314-316,327-332, 337,342,345-346	29,49,86	53,72,104	543
6	18-20,74-78,80,109-112	14,48,91	26,60,106	96
7	313,332-333,336-337,340-343	45,63,89	57,75,103	75
8	183,186-187,343-344,347-348	37,71,93	48,83,106	55
9	80-81,111,128,130-131	14,44,101	23,56,111	44
10	150-155	32,44,85	41,54,97	38

5.2.4. CASTp

CASTp tool predicted binding sites based on probe radius. 1.6 Å probe radius was used in this study, and total 38 pockets were predicted in the 3-D structure of *FemA* protein, while only 10 pockets are found in L-domain (Table 5.5 and Fig. 5.6). It predicted all active site residues of the pocket, their area and volume.

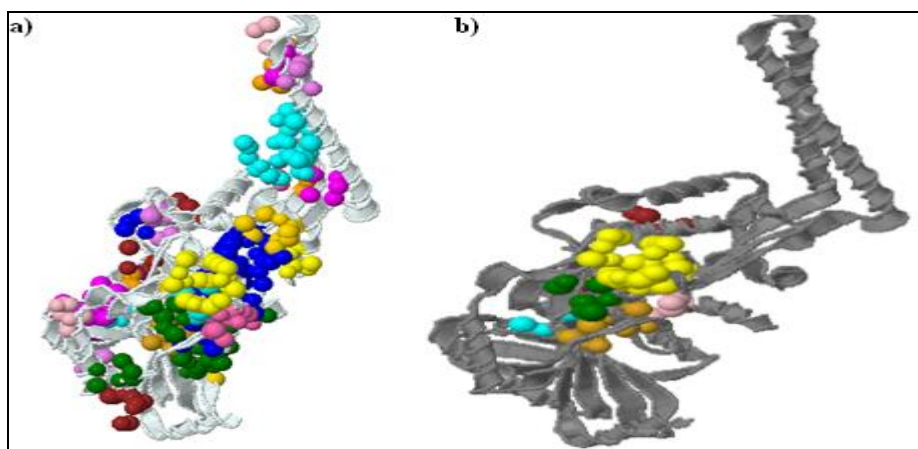


Fig. 5.6 Active sites predicted by CASTp tool (a) total active sites (b) active sites in L-domain

Table 5.5 Details of active sites in L-domain as predicted by CASTp tool

Pocket No.	Active site residues	Area	Volume (Cubic Å)
10	20,76,80,110	41.8	24.1
13	74,154-155,158,364	53.8	33.5
17	348,351,352,355	14.2	10.6
23	367-370,380	50.9	32
25	116,120,147,157,368	32.2	33.4
26	74,108,154,156,395,396	57.8	39.8
31	12,15,16,26,27,235	46.4	41.1
32	15,16,21,22,25,26,321,322	101.2	75.4
33	23,26,28,232,235,321	92.3	68.7
35	118,119,369-372, 374,377,380,381,384	150.7	191.4

5.3. Docking Tools

5.3.1 AutoDock Vina

Table 5.6 Results predicted by AutoDock Vina

Sr.No.	CID	Name	B.A(kcal/mol)
1	6419835	(-)-Catechin gallate; AC1O4WEY	-8.7
2	5276454	(-)-Catechin gallate; XEG	-8.5
3	107905	Epicatechin gallate; (-)-Epicatechin gallate; (-)-Epicatechin-3-gallate	-7.6
4	182232	(+)-Epicatechin; 35323-91-2; ent-Epicatechin	-8.1
5	12309507	L-Epicatechin; 490-46-0	-8.1
6	73160	(-)-Catechin; (-)-Catechol; CATECHIN,	-8.7
7	289	Catechol; pyrocatechol; 1,2-benzenediol	-4.1
8	122738	Procyanidin B2; Procyanidol B2; Proanthocyanidin B2	-8.2
9	9064	CATECHIN; Cianidanol; (+)-Catechin	-8.1
10	65064	(-)-Epigallocatechin gallate; EGCG; Epigallocatechin gallate; Epigallocatechin 3-gallate; Epigallocatechin-3-gallate	-8
11	107957	Catechin hydrate; (+)-Catechin Hydrate	-7.7
12	367141	(-)-epicatechingallate; Epicatechin gallate	-7.4
13	1203	DL-Catechin; NSC81746; L-Epicatechin	-7.3
14	72276	Epicatechin; (-)-Epicatechin; L-Epicatechin; (-)-Epicatechol	-7.3
15	255538	Epi-Catechol; L-Epicatechin; Epicatechol, (-)-; NSC81161; (.+.-)-Epicatechol; AC1L5SMJ;	-7.3

Docking of *FemA* protein with Catechin and Epicatechin analogues have given results in the terms of binding affinity (B.A) in kcal/mol with AutoDock Vina, which ranges from -4.1 to -8.7. Least binding affinity was given by Catechol with Pubmed id 289, and maximum binding affinity was given by Catechin and Catechin Gallate with Pubmed id 73160 and 6419835 respectively (Table 5.6). Best conformation of Catechin Gallate and Catechin predicted by AutoDock Vina software (Figs. 5.7. (a and b) in cartoon view and (c and d) in surface view).

Chapter 5: Results

5.3.2. Dock

Table 5.7. Results predicted by Dock

Sr. No.	CID	Name	Grid_score	Grid_vdw	Grid_es	Int_eng
1	6419 835	(-)-Catechin gallate; AC1O4WEY ...	-	-	-	5.72
			45.19	39.04	6.14	0728
			53	88	644	
2	5276 454	(-)-Catechin gallate; XEG	-	-	-	5.83
			44.64	39.16	5.47	6292
			25	64	615	
3	1079 05	Epicatechin gallate; (-)-Epicatechin gallate; (-)-Epicatechin-3-gallate ...	-	-	-	6.48
			43.82	30.29	13.5	2648
			31	42	29	
4	1822 32	(+) -Epicatechin; 35323-91-2; ent-Epicatechin ...	-	-	-	3.40
			37.05	30.21	6.84	9987
			76	71	049	
5	1230 9507	L-Epicatechin; 490-46-0	-	-	-	2.23
			34.49	28.83	5.66	9769
			91	2	71	
6	7316 0	(-)-Catechin; (-)-Catechol; CATECHIN, ALPHA ...	-	28.39	-	3.14
			34.03	634	5.63	5205
			4		766	
7	289	catechol; pyrocatechol; 1,2-benzenediol ...	-	-	-	0.05
			20.68	16.29	4.38	5943
			71	85	866	
8	1227 38	Procyanidin B2; Procyanidol B2;				Out of Grid
9	9064	CATECHIN; Cianidanol; (+)-Catechin				Out of Grid
10	6506 4	(-)-Epigallocatechin gallate; EGCG; Epigallocatechin gallate; Epigallocatechin 3-gallate;				Out of Grid
11	1079 57	Catechin hydrate; (+)-Catechin Hydrate				Out of Grid
12	3671 41	(-)-epicatechingallate; Epicatechin gallate;				Out of Grid
13	1203	DL-Catechin; NSC81746; L-Epicatechin				Out of Grid
14	7227 6	Epicatechin; (-)-Epicatechin; L-Epicatechin; (-)-Epicatechol				Out of Grid
15	2555 38	Epi-Catechol; L-Epicatechin; Epicatechol, (-)-; NSC81161; (.+.-)-Epicatechol;				Out of Grid

UCSF Dock gives results in output_scored.mol2 file which contains the geometric coordinates as well as the summary of interaction energies of binding for the docked ligand poses in the order of their grid score. The best pose would have the most favorable grid score. Among the

Chapter 5: Results

docked ligands, only seven ligands have shown dock score from range of -45 to -20 (Table 5.7), while rest ligands were out of grid. (-)Catechin Gallate with cid 6419835 has given best dock score of -45.19 similar to the results given by AutoDock Vina tool. Best conformation of the best ligand, i.e. Catechin Gallate has been shown in Fig. 5.8.

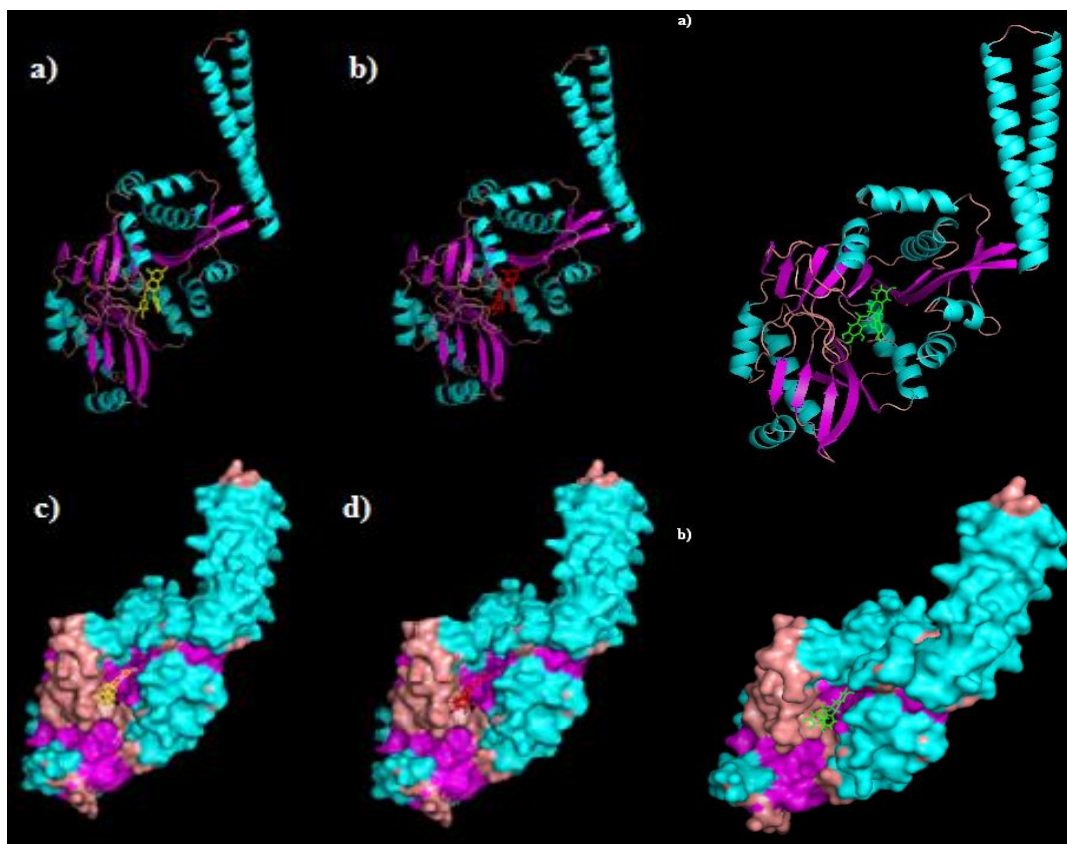


Fig. 5.7 AutoDock Vina results :*FemA* protein complex with ligand Catechin Gallate and Catechin in cartoon view (a and b respectively). Similarly (c and d) in surface view.

Fig. 5.8 UCSF Dock results: *FemA* protein complex with ligand Catechin Gallate in (a) cartoon view (b) surface view.

5.4 Interaction and Toxicity studies

Interaction and toxicity profiling of ligands was performed, for the selection of the ligand for *in vitro* studies. All hydrogen and hydrophobic interactions between *FemA* protein and Catechin Gallate models predicted by both software's (Fig. 5.9.) LigPlot+ has predicted four hydrogen bonds with amino acid (Asp 150, Gly330, Phe 363, Lys 383) and two hydrogen

Chapter 5: Results

bonds (Gln 154, Lys 383) in AutoDock Vina complex and Dock's complex. Out of these only, Lys 383 is a common hydrogen bond between both complexes.

While nine hydrophobic interactions are found in AutoDock Vina complex with amino acid, Phe 149, Leu 153, Gln 154, Ile 155, Tyr 327, Tyr 328, Ala 329, Tyr 364, Gly 368 and six hydrophobic interactions are found in Dock's complex with amino acid Phe 149, Ile 155, Tyr 327, Tyr 328, Ala 329, Gly 368. Hydrophobic interaction predicted in Dock's complex is common among both complexes.

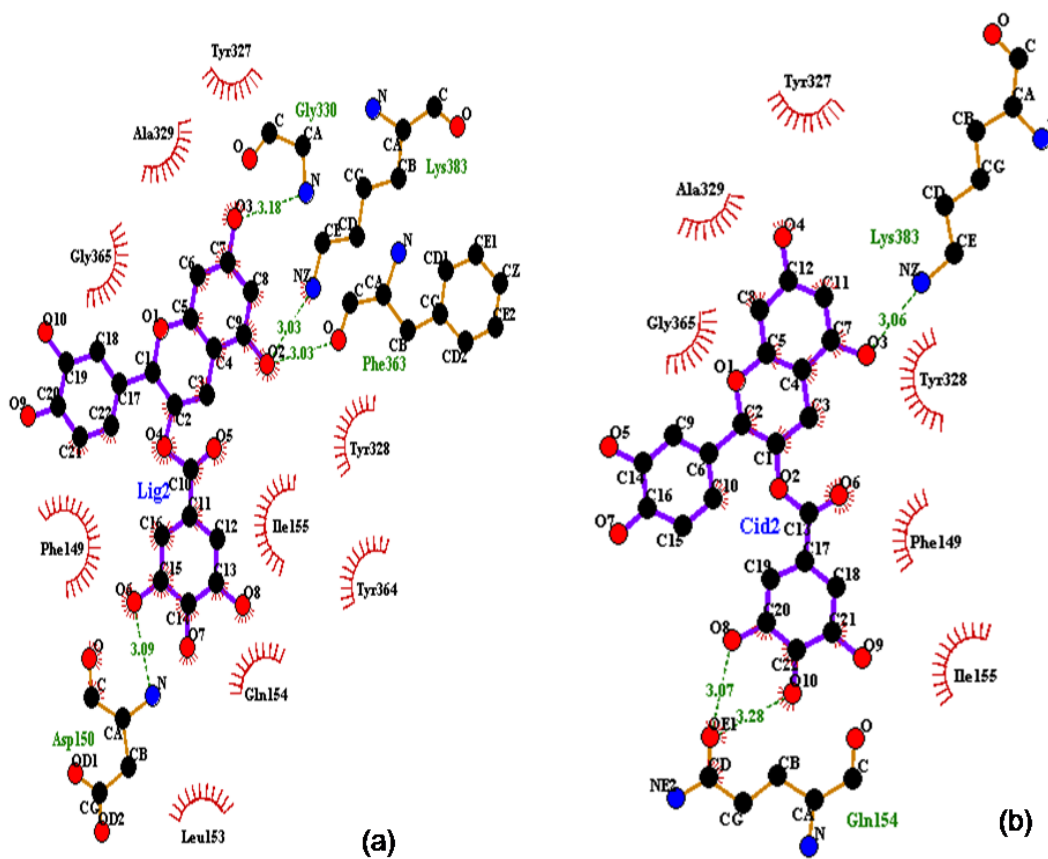


Fig. 5.9 Interaction of Catechin Gallate with different residues of *FemeA* protein given by LIGPLOT+ tool (a) AutoDock Vina result file (b) Dock result file.

5.4.2 Toxicological studies

Table 5.8 TOXICITY RESULTS PREDICTED BY OSIRIS

Pubchem CID	Name	Drug likeliness	Mutagenicity risk	Tumorigenicity Risk	Irriating effects	Reproductive Effects	Drug Score
6419835	(-)-Catechin gallate	2.81 (s=0.94)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	0.74
73160	(-)-Catechin; Catechin L-form	1.92 (s=0.87)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	0.86
5276454	(-)-Catechin gallate;	2.81 (s=0.94)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	0.74
122738	Procyanidin B2;	1.92 (s=0.87)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	0.534
182232	(+)-Epicatechin; 35323-91-2; ent- Epicatechin	1.92 (s=0.87)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	0.86
12309507	L-Epicatechin;	1.92 (s=0.87)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	0.86
9064	CATECHIN; Cianidanol; (+)Catechin;	1.92 (s=0.87)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	0.86
65064	EGCG;(-)- Epigallocatechin gallate	1.57 (s=0.83)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	0.69
107957	Catechin hydrate; (+)Catechin hydrate	1.92 (s=0.87)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	0.86
107905	Epicatechin gallate; (-)-Epicatechin gallate;	2.81 (s= .94)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	0.74
367141	(-)-Epicatechin gallate; NSC636594	1.39 (s=0.8)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	0.68
1203	DL-Catechin; NSC81746; L- Epicatechin	1.92 (s=0.87)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	0.86
72276	Epicatechin; (-)- Epicatechin	1.92 (s=0.87)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	0.86
255538	L-Epicatechin; Epicatechol,	1.92 (s=0.87)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	NO (score=1)	0.86
289	catechol; pyrocatechol	-2.25 (s=0.09)	Yes (score=0.6)	Yes (score=0.6)	Yes (score=0.6)	NO (score=1)	0.112

5.4.3 Lipinski filters

Table 5.9 LIPINSKI RESULTS

Pubchem CID	Name	Mol. Wt.	HBA	HBD	LogP	MR	Number of LV
6419835	(-)-Catechin gallate	442	3	7	3	96.3	1
73160	(-)-Catechin; Catechin L-form	290	1	5	0.52	64.6	0
5276454	(-)-Catechin gallate; (2R,3S)-2-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)-5,7-dihydroxy-3,4-dihydro-2Hchromen-3-yl 3,4,5-trihydroxybenzoate	442	3	7	3	96.3	1
122738	Procyanidin B2; Procyanidol B2;	578	2	10	0.9	108	2
182232	(+)-Epicatechin; 35323-91-2; ent-Epicatechin	290	1	5	0.52	64.6	0
12309507	L-Epicatechin;	290	1	5	0.52	64.6	0
9064	CATECHIN; Cianidanol; (+)-Catechin;D-catechin;(+) cyanidanol	290	6	5	0.4	NA	0
65064	EGCG;(-)-Epigallocatechin gallate	458	11	8	1.2	NA	2
107957	Catechin hydrate;(+) -Catechin Hydrate	308	7	6	NA	NA	1
107905	Epicatechin gallate; (-)-Epicatechin-3-gallate;	442	3	7	3	96.3	1
367141	(-)-Epicatechin gallate; NSC636594	442	10	7	1.5	NA	1
1203	DL-Catechin; NSC81746; L-Epicatechin	290	6	5	0.4	NA	0
72276	Epicatechin; (-)-Epicatechin	290	1	5	0.52	64.6	0
255538	L-Epicatechin; Epicatechol,	290	1	5	0.52	64.6	0
289	catechol;pyrocatechol	110	0	2	1.1	29.8	1

Mol. Wt.:Molecular Weight, HBA:Hydrogen Bond Acceptor,HBD: Hydrogen Bond Donor, MR: Molecular Refractivity, Number of LV: Number of Lipinski's Rule Violation

Chapter 5: Results

Table 5.8 indicates the results of toxicological studies, which indicates the toxic or side effects of these chemicals as drug. Toxicity or their side effect is indicated by the score. If the score is less than five for any test that indicates failure of that ligand in that test. As given in Table 5.8, there is only one ligand, which has shown very poor results in toxicity studies, i.e. catechol with cid 289. Seven ligands, i.e. cid (73160, 182232, 12309507, 9064, 1203, 72276, 255538) which are not violating any Lipinski rule of five, which indicates the fitness of physical and chemical properties of these ligands to work as inhibitors (Table 5.9).

While out of rest eight, two, ligands, i.e. (122738, 65064) are violating two Lipinski rules, which indicate that they are unsuitable for the medical purpose but five ligands (6419835, 5276454, 107957, 107905, 367141, 289) which are violating one rule of Lipinski rules can be used. Catechin Gallate with cid 6419835 is falling in this category that's why it can be used for further *in vitro studies*.

5.5 Test Cultures

Standard cultures were used for experimental analysis, *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 was used as control and *S. aureus* MTCC 737 and *S. aureus* MTCC 96 were used as resistant strains.

5.5.1: Growth curve studies of test isolates

Growth curve study was performed by Miles and Misra's method. The mean lag phase of the cultures ranged between 1.5-2 h, followed by a log₁₀ phase which extended up to 8-9 h and then entered into stationary phase until 16-18 h, and this was followed by death phase up to 24 h (Fig. 5.10). Generation time observed for *S. aureus* NCTC 6571, *S. aureus* MTCC 737 and *S. aureus* MTCC 96 were 44.03, 45.30 and 46.91 min respectively. Average generation time of isolates observed was 45.41 min in the log phase.

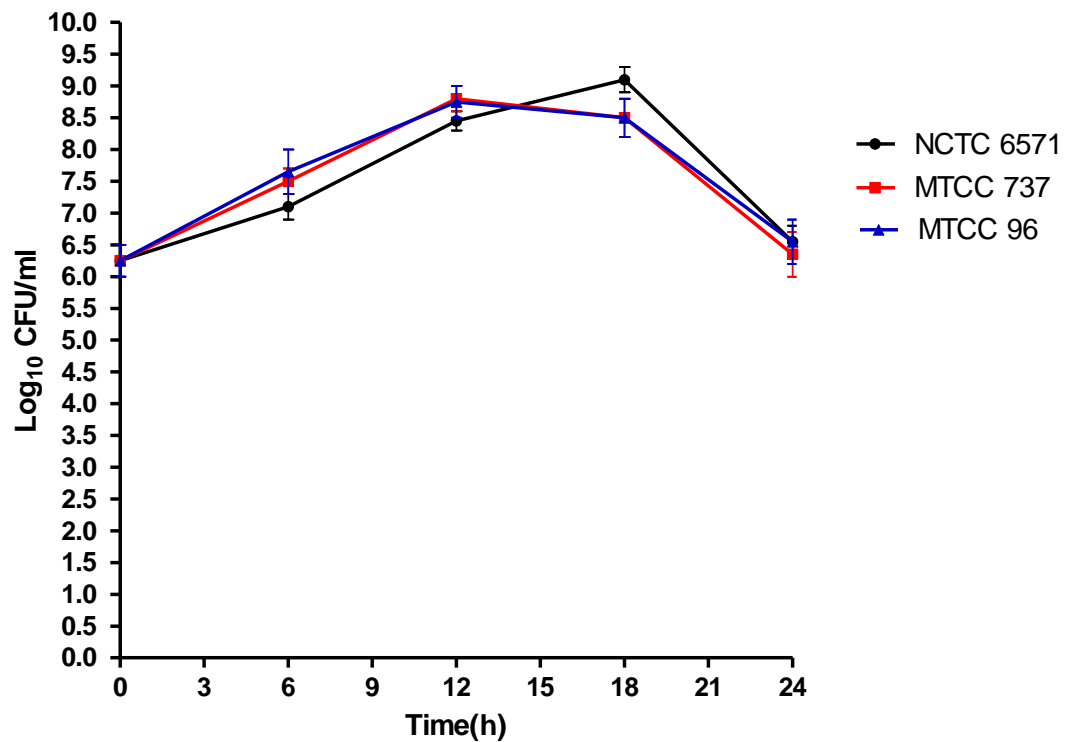


Fig. 5.10 Growth Curve of *S. aureus* strains.
Data represented are mean \pm standard deviation of three replicates.

5.6 *mecA* and *femA* characterization of the test isolates

Molecular characterization of all three strains of *S. aureus* was performed for both *mecA* and *femA* gene primers. Two isolate *S. aureus* MTCC 737 and *S. aureus* MTCC 96 both were found to be *mecA* positive using primer corresponded to forward primer mA1-5'AAA ATC GAT GGT AAA GGT TGG C 3', and the reverse primer was complimentary to mA2-5' AGT TCT GCA GTA CCG GAT TTG C 3'.

The amplified product was observed at 533bp (Fig. 5.11 a). *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 has shown negative results. While all three strains of *S. aureus* has shown the positive results with *femA* gene primers corresponded to forward primer (5'AAA AAA GCA CAT AAC AAG CG 3'), and the reverse primer was complimentary to 5' GAT AAA GAA GAA ACC AGC AG 3'. DNA fragment of 132 bp was amplified from DNA of all three strains (Fig. 5.11b).

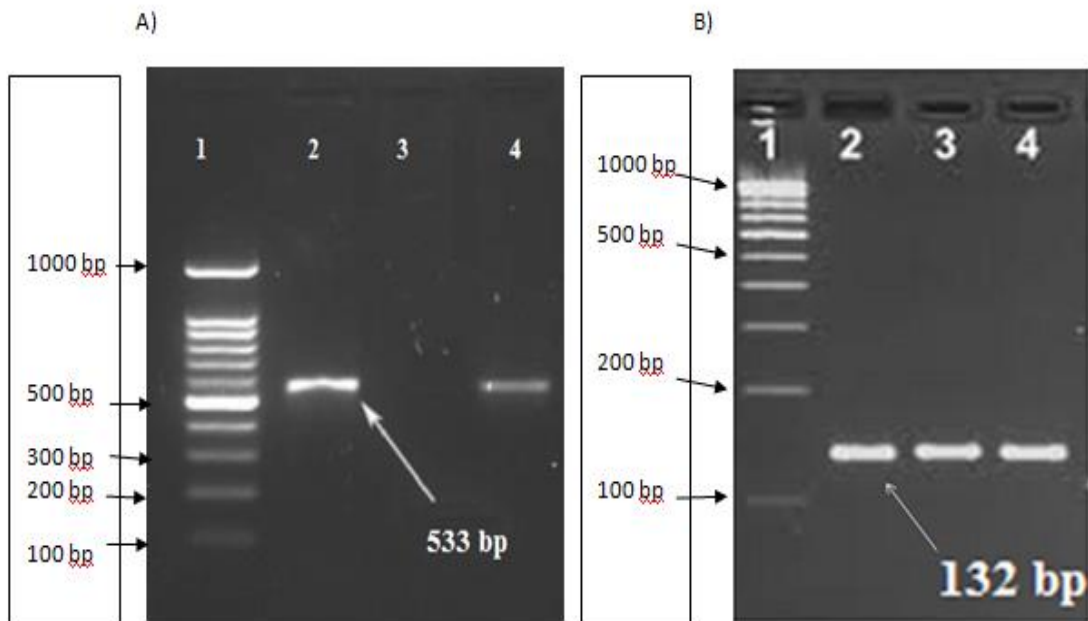


Fig 5.11(a) Screening of staphylococcal isolates for the presence of *mecA* gene with 533 bp amplicon and (b) *femA* gene with 132 bp amplicon as a marker for methicillin resistance

Lane coding of gels

1-Ladder, 2- *S. aureus* MTCC 737, 3- *S. aureus* NCTC 6571, 4- *S. aureus* MTCC 96

5.7 Evaluation of microbial activity of *S. aureus* isolates

5.7.1 *In vitro* microbroth dilution assay: determination of MIC

According to the NCCLS and EUCAST guidelines for microbroth dilution, the MIC was defined as the lowest concentration of antibiotic that completely inhibit the growth within the organism as detected with the naked eye.

MIC observed for antibiotic Oxacillin for all three *S. aureus* isolates is 500 µg/ml (Fig. 5.12) and similarly, for antibiotic Penicillin is 8000 µg/ml for isolates (Fig.5.13). While MIC observed for CG alone is very less as compared to the MIC of β-lactam antibiotics, values observed were 62.5 µg/ml for *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 and *S. aureus* MTCC 96 and 125 µg/ml for *S. aureus* MTCC 737 isolates (Fig. 5.14). All experiments are performed in triplicate. Mean values of MIC with their standard deviation are given in Table 5.10.

Chapter 5: Results

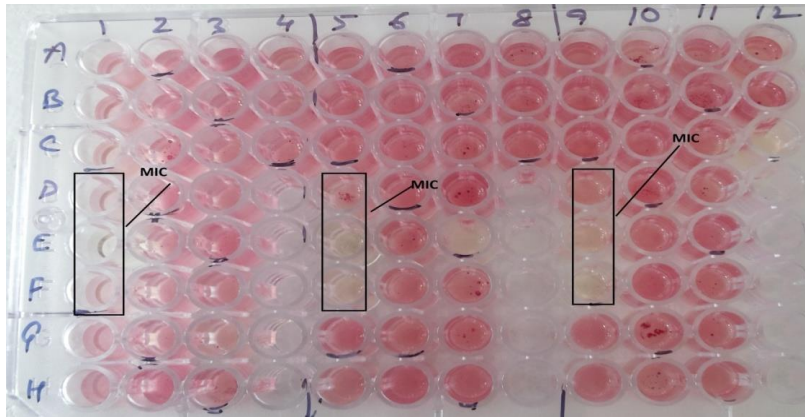


Fig 5.12 Microbroth dilution results of *S. aureus* NCTC 6571, *S. aureus* MTCC 737 and *S. aureus* MTCC 96 with antibiotic Oxacillin

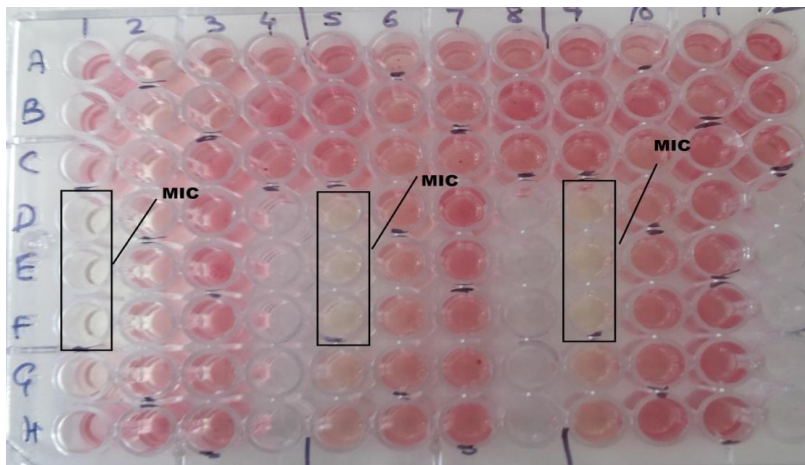


Fig 5.13 Microbroth dilution results of *S. aureus* NCTC 6571, *S. aureus* MTCC 737 and *S. aureus* MTCC 96 with antibiotic Penicillin

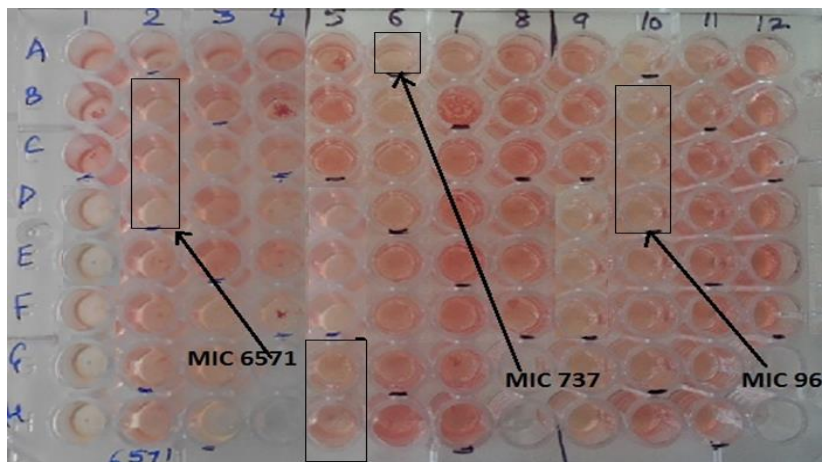


Fig 5.14 Microbroth dilution results of *S. aureus* NCTC 6571, *S. aureus* MTCC 737 and *S. aureus* MTCC 96 with test compound CG

Chapter 5: Results

Table 5.10. MIC of *S. aureus* all three strains w.r.t. antibiotic Oxacillin, Penicillin and test compound CG

<i>S. aureus</i> Strain	MIC ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)		
	Oxacillin	Penicillin	Catechin Gallate
NCTC 6571	500 \pm 0	8000 \pm 0	62.5 \pm 0
MTCC 737	500 \pm 0	8000 \pm 0	125 \pm 0
MTCC 96	500 \pm 0	8000 \pm 0	62.5 \pm 0

The data presented are mean \pm SD of three replicates.

5.7.2 CHECKERBOARD : FIC INDEX Assay

For checkerboard assay and FIC index calculations, antibiotic Oxacillin was tested for 1000-62.5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration, with 125-7.8 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration of CG for *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 and *S. aureus* MTCC 96, while in case of *S. aureus* MTCC 737, same concentration of Oxacillin was used with 250-15.6 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration of CG in twenty-five combinations for each strain in triplicates. As a result, it was observed that in *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 strain, all twenty-five combinations of Oxacillin with CG have shown no growth in any well, which indicates that 1/8th MIC of CG can reduce the MIC of Oxacillin eight times (Fig. 5.15 and 5.16). Synergy was observed at 62.5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration of Oxacillin with 15.6-7.8 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration of CG, while with same concentration of Oxacillin, partial synergy, additive and indifference, effect was observed with 31.25, 62.5 and 125 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration of CG (Table 5.11).

Similarly, in case of *S. aureus* MTCC 737 and MTCC 96 1/8th MIC of CG can reduce the MIC of Oxacillin to eight times (Fig. 5.17-5.20). In case of MTCC 737, synergy was observed at 62.5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration of Oxacillin with 31.25 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration of CG, and 125 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration of Oxacillin with 15.62 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration of CG while with 62.5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration of Oxacillin, partial synergy, additive and indifference, effect was observed with 62.5, 125 and 250 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration of CG (Table 5.12). In *S. aureus* MTCC 96 strain, synergy was observed at 125 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration of Oxacillin with 15.6-7.8 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration of CG, while with 62.5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration of Oxacillin, partial synergy and indifference, effect was observed with 31.25, 62.5 and 125 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration of CG (Table

Chapter 5: Results

5.13). In comparison to Oxacillin, Penicillin MIC was very high. Therefore, antibiotic Penicillin was tested for 16000-1000 µg/ml concentration, with 125-7.8 µg/ml concentration of CG for *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 and *S. aureus* MTCC 96, while in case of *S. aureus* MTCC 737, similar concentration of Penicillin was used with 250-15.6 µg/ml concentration of CG in twenty-five combinations for each strain in triplicates. Checkerboard results of Penicillin with CG for *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 strain have shown that 1/8th MIC of CG reduced the MIC of Penicillin up to 1/4th (Fig. 5.21 and 5.22). While it is reduced in *S. aureus* MTCC 737 and *S. aureus* MTCC 96 strains where 1/8th MIC of CG can reduce the Penicillin MIC only up to half (Fig. 5.23-5.26).

Synergy was observed only in *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 strain, at 2000 µg/ml concentration of Penicillin with 7.8 µg/ml concentration of CG (Table 5.14). Partial synergy and indifference, were observed at 4000 µg/ml concentration of Penicillin with 15.62 µg/ml concentration of CG or 2000 µg/ml concentration of Penicillin with 31.25 µg/ml concentration of CG and 4000 µg/ml concentration of Penicillin with 62.5 µg/ml concentration of CG or 2000 µg/ml concentration of Penicillin with 125 µg/ml concentration of CG respectively in *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 (Table 5.14). In *S. aureus* MTCC 737, partial synergy, additive and indifference were observed at 4000 µg/ml concentration of Penicillin with 15.62-31.25 µg/ml concentration of CG; 4000 µg/ml concentration of Penicillin with 62.5 µg/ml concentration of CG; 2000 µg/ml concentration of Penicillin with 125 µg/ml concentration of CG and 1000 µg/ml concentration of Penicillin with 250 µg/ml concentration of CG respectively (Table 5.15). Similarly, in *S. aureus* MTCC 96 partial synergy, additive and indifference were observed at 4000 µg/ml concentration of Penicillin with 7.8-15.6 µg/ml concentration of CG; 4000 µg/ml concentration of Penicillin with 31.25 µg/ml concentration of CG and 4000 µg/ml concentration of Penicillin with 62.5 µg/ml concentration of CG or 2000 µg/ml concentration of Penicillin with 125 µg/ml concentration of CG respectively (Table 5.16). Significant FIC

Chapter 5: Results

values for synergy were observed between (0.25-0.38) for two formulations of Oxacillin and CG in all three strains, i.e. *S. aureus* NCTC 6571, *S. aureus* MTCC 737 and *S. aureus* MTCC 96, whereas just one formulation of Penicillin and CG for *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 (Table 5.17). Based on these results, four the most synergistic FIC index valued formulations were identified; and used for further experimental analysis.

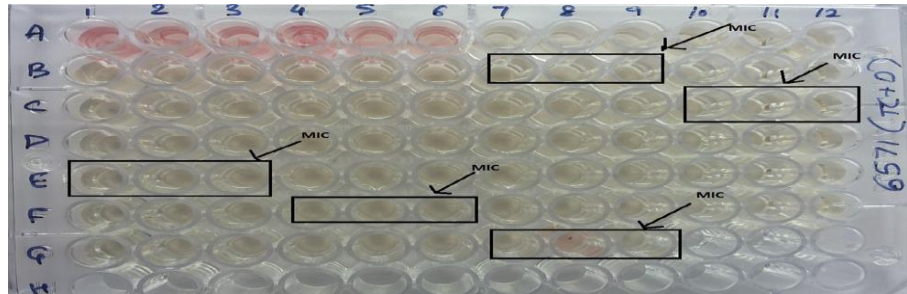


Fig. 5.15 Checkerboard result of *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 for five different concentration of antibiotic Oxacillin with five different concentration of test compound (CG)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
A	CTRL1	CTRL1	CTRL1	CTRL2	CTRL2	CTRL2	125CG +1000 O	125CG +1000 O	125CG +1000 O	125CG + 500 O	125 CG + 500 O	125CG + 500 O
B	125CG + 250 O	125CG + 250 O	125CG + 250 O	125CG + 125 O	125CG + 125 O	125CG + 125 O	125CG + 62.5 O	125CG + 62.5 O	125CG + 62.5 O	62.5 CG + 1000 O	62.5 CG + 1000 O	62.5 CG + 1000 O
C	62.5 CG + 500 O	62.5 CG + 500 O	62.5 CG + 500 O	62.5 CG + 250 O	62.5 CG + 250 O	62.5 CG + 250 O	62.5 CG + 125 O	62.5 CG + 125 O	62.5 CG + 125 O	62.5 CG + 62.5 O	62.5 CG + 62.5 O	62.5 CG + 62.5 O
D	31.25 CG + 1000 O	31.25 CG + 1000 O	31.25 CG + 1000 O	31.25 CG + 500 O	31.25 CG + 500 O	31.25 CG + 500 O	31.25 CG + 250 O	31.25 CG + 250 O	31.25 CG + 250 O	31.25 CG + 125 O	31.25CG + 125 O	31.25 CG + 125 O
E	31.25 CG + 62.5 O	31.25 CG + 62.5 O	31.25 CG + 62.5 O	15.6 CG + 1000 O	15.6CG + 1000 O	15.6 CG + 1000 O	15.6 CG + 500 O	15.6 CG + 500 O	15.6CG + 500 O	15.6 CG + 250 O	15.6 CG + 250 O	15.6 CG + 250 O
F	15.6 CG + 125 O	15.6 CG + 125 O	15.6 CG + 125 O	15.6 CG + 62.5 O	15.6 CG + 62.5 O	15.6 CG + 62.5 O	7.8 CG + 1000 O	7.8 CG + 1000 O	7.8 CG + 1000 O	7.8 CG + 500 O	7.8 CG + 500 O	7.8 CG + 500 O
G	7.8 CG + 250 O	7.8 CG + 250 O	7.8 CG + 250 O	7.8 CG + 125 O	7.8 CG + 125 O	7.8 CG + 125 O	7.8 CG + 62.5 O	7.8 CG + 62.5 O	7.8 CG + 62.5 O			
H												

Fig. 5.16 MIC of *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 with antibiotic Oxacillin and test compound CG from checkerboard method

Table 5.11 FIC INDEX of *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 with antibiotic Oxacillin and test compound CG

	125CG + 62.5 O	62.5 CG + 62.5 O	31.25 CG + 62.5 O	15.6 CG + 62.5 O	7.8 CG + 62.5 O
FIC CG	2	1	0.5	0.25	0.125
FIC O	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125
FIC I	2.125	1.125	0.625	0.375	0.25
SIGNIFICANCE	INDIFFERENCE	INDIFFERENCE	PARTIAL SYNERGY	SYNERGY	SYNERGY

CG:Catechin Gallate, O:Oxacillin, I:Index

Chapter 5: Results

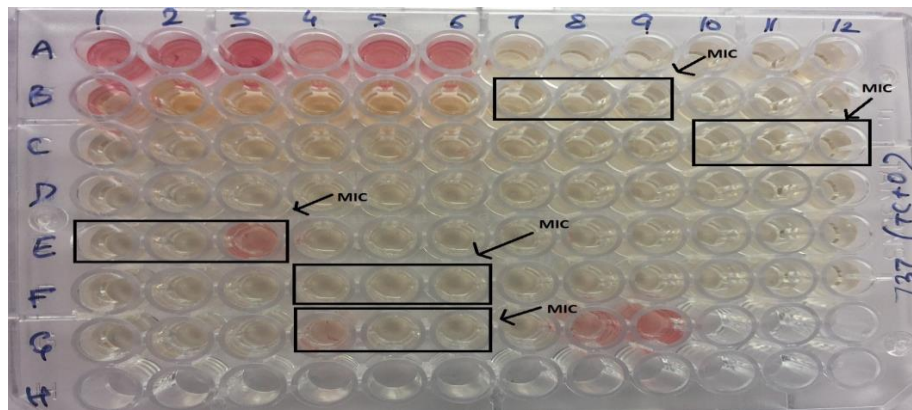


Fig. 5.17 Checkerboard result of *S. aureus* MTCC 737 for five different concentration of antibiotic Oxacillin with five different concentration of test compound (CG)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
A	CTRL1	CTRL1	CTRL1	CTRL2	CTRL2	CTRL2	250 CG +1000 O	250 CG +1000 O	250 CG +1000 O	250 CG + 500 O	250 CG + 500 O	250 CG + 500 O
B	250 CG + 250 O	250 CG + 250 O	250 CG + 250 O	250 CG + 125 O	250 CG + 125 O	250 CG + 125 O	250 CG + 62.5 O	250 CG + 62.5 O	250 CG + 62.5 O	125 CG +1000 O	125 CG +1000 O	125 CG +1000 O
C	125 CG + 500 O	125 CG + 500 O	125 CG + 500 O	125 CG + 250 O	125 CG + 250 O	125 CG + 250 O	125 CG + 125 O	125 CG + 125 O	125 CG + 125 O	125 CG + 62.5 O	125 CG + 62.5 O	125 CG + 62.5 O
D	62.5 CG +1000 O	62.5 CG +1000 O	62.5 CG +1000 O	62.5 CG +500 O	62.5 CG +500 O	62.5 CG + 500 O	62.5 CG + 250 O	62.5 CG + 250 O	62.5 CG + 250 O	62.5 CG + 125 O	62.5 CG + 125 O	62.5 CG + 125 O
E	62.5 CG + 62.5 O	62.5 CG + 62.5 O	62.5 CG + 62.5 O	31.25 CG + 1000 O	31.25 CG + 1000 O	31.25 CG + 1000 O	31.25 CG + 500 O	31.25 CG + 500 O	31.25 CG + 500 O	31.25 CG + 250 O	31.25 CG + 250 O	31.25 CG + 250 O
F	31.25 CG + 125 O	31.25 CG + 125 O	31.25 CG + 125 O	31.25 CG + 62.5 O	31.25 CG + 62.5 O	31.25 CG + 62.5 O	15.6 CG + 1000 O	15.6 CG + 1000 O	15.6 CG + 1000 O	15.6 CG + 500 O	15.6 CG + 500 O	15.6 CG + 500 O
G	15.6 CG + 250 O	15.6 CG + 250 O	15.6 CG + 250 O	15.6 CG + 125 O	15.6 CG + 125 O	15.6 CG + 125 O	15.6 CG + 62.5 O	15.6 CG + 62.5 O	15.6 CG + 62.5 O			
H												

Fig. 5.18 MIC of *S. aureus* MTCC 737 with antibiotic Oxacillin and test compound CG from checkerboard method

Table 5.12 FIC INDEX of *S. aureus* MTCC 737 with antibiotic Oxacillin and test compound CG

	250 CG + 62.5 O	125 CG + 62.5 O	62.5 CG + 62.5 O	31.25 CG + 62.5 O	15.6 CG+125O
FIC CG	2	1	0.5	0.25	0.125
FIC O	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.25
FIC I	2.125	1.125	0.625	0.375	0.375
SIGNIFICANCE	INDIFFERENCE	INDIFFERENCE	PARTIAL SYNERGY	SYNERGY	SYNERGY

CG:Catechin Gallate, O:Oxacillin, I:Index

Chapter 5: Results

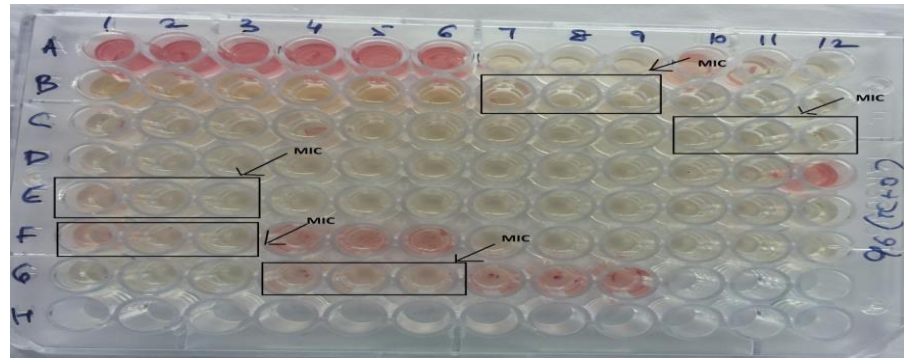


Fig.5.19 Checkerboard result of *S. aureus* MTCC 96 for five different concentration of antibiotic Oxacillin with five different concentration of test compound (CG)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
A	CTRL1	CTRL1	CTRL1	CTRL2	CTRL2	CTRL2	125CG +1000 O	125CG +1000 O	125CG +1000 O	125CG + 500 O	125CG+ 500 O	125CG + 500 O
B	125CG + 250 O	125CG + 250 O	125CG + 250 O	125CG + 125 O	125CG+ 125 O	125CG + 125 O	125CG + 62.5 O	125CG + 62.5 O	125CG + 62.5 O	62.5 CG + 1000 O	62.5 CG +1000 O	62.5 CG + 1000 O
C	62.5 CG + 500 O	62.5 CG + 500 O	62.5 CG + 500 O	62.5 CG + 250 O	62.5 CG + 250 O	62.5 CG + 250 O	62.5 CG + 125 O	62.5 CG + 125 O	62.5 CG +125 O	62.5 CG + 62.5 O	62.5 CG +62.5 O	62.5 CG + 62.5 O
D	31.25 CG +1000 O	31.25 CG +1000 O	31.25 CG +1000 O	31.25 CG + 500 O	31.25 CG + 500 O	31.25 CG + 500 O	31.25 CG + 250 O	31.25 CG + 250 O	31.25 CG + 250 O	31.25 CG +125 O	31.25CG +125 O	31.25 CG +125 O
E	31.25 CG + 62.5 O	31.25 CG + 62.5 O	31.25 CG + 62.5 O	15.6 CG + 1000 O	15.6CG + 1000 O	15.6 CG + 1000 O	15.6 CG + 500 O	15.6 CG + 500 O	15.6CG + 500 O	15.6 CG + 250 O	15.6 CG + 250 O	15.6 CG + 250 O
F	15.6 CG + 125 O	15.6 CG + 125 O	15.6 CG + 125 O	15.6 CG + 62.5 O	15.6 CG + 62.5 O	15.6 CG + 62.5 O	7.8 CG + 1000 O	7.8 CG + 1000 O	7.8 CG + 1000 O	7.8 CG + 500 O	7.8CG + 500 O	7.8 CG + 500 O
G	7.8 CG + 250 O	7.8 CG + 250 O	7.8 CG + 250 O	7.8 CG + 125 O	7.8 CG + 125 O	7.8 CG + 125 O	7.8 CG + 62.5 O	7.8 CG + 62.5 O	7.8 CG + 62.5 O			
H												

Fig. 5.20 MIC of *S. aureus* MTCC 96 with antibiotic Oxacillin and test compound CG from checkerboard method

Table.5.13 FIC INDEX of *S. aureus* MTCC 96 with antibiotic Oxacillin and test compound CG

	125 CG + 62.5 O	62.5 CG + 62.5 O	31.25 CG + 62.5 O	15.6 CG + 125 O	7.8 CG+125 O
FIC CG	2	1	0.5	0.25	0.125
FIC O	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.25	0.25
FIC I	2.125	1.125	0.625	0.5	0.375
SIGNIFICANCE	INDIFFERENCE	INDIFFERENCE	PARTIAL SYNERGY	SYNERGY	SYNERGY

CG:Catechin Gallate, O:Oxacillin, I:Index

Chapter 5: Results

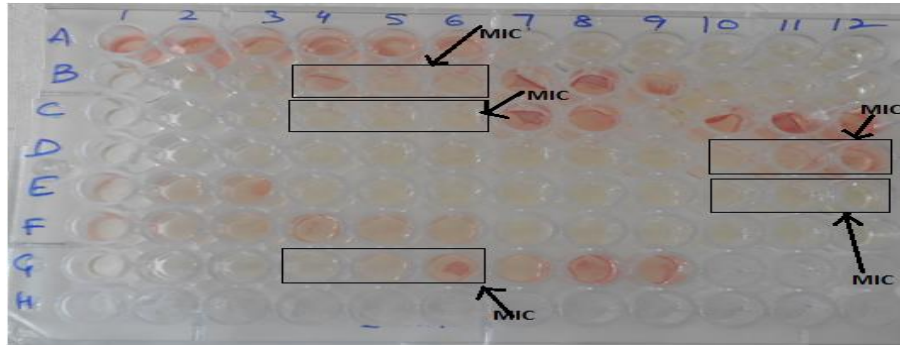


Fig. 5.21 Checkerboard result of *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 for five different concentration of antibiotic Penicillin with five different concentration of test compound (CG)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
A	CTRL1	CTRL1	CTRL1	CTRL2	CTRL2	CTRL2	125CG +16000 P	125CG +16000 P	125CG +16000 P	125CG + 8000 P	125CG + 8000 P	125CG + 8000 P
B	125CG + 4000 P	125CG + 4000 P	125CG + 4000 P	125CG + 2000 P	125CG + 2000 P	125CG + 2000 P	125CG + 1000 P	125CG + 1000 P	125CG + 1000 P	62.5 CG + 16000 p	62.5 CG + 16000 p	62.5 CG + 16000 p
C	62.5 CG + 8000 P	62.5 CG + 8000 P	62.5 CG + 8000 P	62.5 CG + 4000 P	62.5 CG + 4000 P	62.5 CG + 4000 P	62.5 CG + 2000 P	62.5 CG + 2000 P	62.5 CG + 2000 P	62.5 CG + 1000 P	62.5CG + 1000 P	62.5 CG + 1000 P
D	31.25 CG + 16000 P	31.25 CG + 16000 P	31.25 CG + 16000 P	31.25 CG + 8000 P	31.25 CG + 8000 P	31.25 CG + 8000 P	31.25 CG + 4000 P	31.25 CG + 4000 P	31.25 CG + 4000 P	31.25 CG + 2000 P	31.25 CG + 2000 P	31.25 CG + 2000 P
E	31.25 CG + 1000 P	31.25 CG + 1000 P	31.25 CG + 1000 P	15.6 CG + 16000 P	15.6 CG + 16000 P	15.6 CG + 16000 P	15.6 CG + 8000 P	15.6 CG + 8000 P	15.6 CG + 8000 P	15.6 CG + 4000 P	15.6 CG + 4000 P	15.6 CG + 4000 P
F	15.6 CG + 2000 P	15.6 CG + 2000 P	15.6 CG + 2000 P	15.6 CG + 1000 P	15.6 CG + 1000 P	15.6 CG + 1000 P	7.8 CG + 16000 P	7.8 CG + 16000 P	7.8 CG + 16000 P	7.8 CG + 8000 P	7.8 CG + 8000 P	7.8 CG + 8000 P
G	7.8CG + 4000 P	7.8 CG + 4000 P	7.8 CG + 4000 P	7.8 CG + 2000 P	7.8 CG + 2000 P	7.8CG + 2000 P	7.8 CG + 1000 P	7.8 CG + 1000 P	7.8 CG + 1000 P			
H												

Fig. 5.22 MIC of *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 with antibiotic Penicillin and test compound CG from checkerboard method

Table 5.14 FIC INDEX of *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 with antibiotic Penicillin and test compound CG

	125CG + 2000 P	62.5 CG + 4000 P	31.25 CG + 2000 P	15.6 CG + 4000 P	7.8 CG + 2000 P
FIC CG	2	1	0.5	0.25	0.125
FIC P	0.25	0.5	0.25	0.5	0.25
FIC I	2.25	1.5	0.75	0.75	0.375
SIGNIFICANCE	INDIFFERENCE	INDIFFERENCE	PARTIAL SYNERGY	PARTIAL SYNERGY	SYNERGY

CG:Catechin Gallate, P:Penicillin, I:Index

Chapter 5: Results

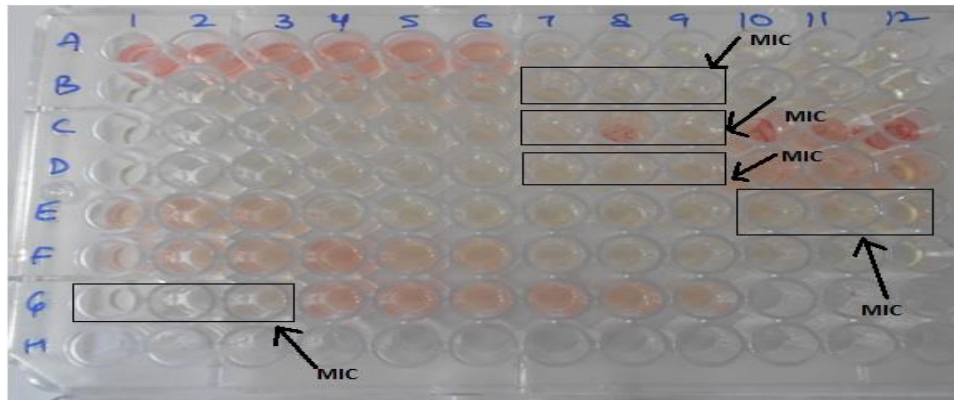


Fig. 5.23 Checkerboard result of *S. aureus* MTCC 737 for five different concentration of antibiotic Penicillin with five different concentration of test compound (CG)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
A	CTRL1	CTRL1	CTRL1	CTRL2	CTRL2	CTRL2	250CG +16000 P	250CG +16000 P	250C+16000 P	250CG + 8000 P	250CG + 8000 P	250CG + 8000 P
B	250CG + 4000 P	250CG + 4000 P	250CG + 4000 P	250CG + 2000 P	250CG + 2000 P	250CG + 2000 P	250CG + 1000 P	250CG + 1000 P	250CG + 1000 P	125 CG + 16000 p	125 CG + 16000 p	125 CG + 16000 p
C	125 CG + 8000 P	125 CG + 8000 P	125 CG + 8000 P	125 CG + 4000 P	125 CG + 4000 P	125 CG + 4000 P	125 CG + 2000 P	125 CG + 2000 P	125 CG + 2000 P	125 CG + 1000 P	125 CG + 1000 P	125 CG + 1000 P
D	62.5 CG + 16000 P	62.5 CG + 16000 P	62.5 CG + 16000 P	62.5 CG + 8000 P	62.5 CG + 8000 P	62.5 CG + 8000 P	62.5 CG + 4000 P	62.5 CG + 4000 P	62.5 CG + 4000 P	62.5 CG + 2000 P	62.5 CG + 2000 P	62.5 CG + 2000 P
E	62.5 CG + 1000 P	62.5 CG + 1000 P	62.5 CG + 1000 P	31.25 CG + 16000 P	31.25 CG + 16000 P	31.25 CG + 16000 P	31.25 CG + 8000 P	31.25 CG + 8000 P	31.25 CG + 8000 P	31.25 CG + 4000 P	31.25 CG + 4000 P	31.25 CG + 4000 P
F	31.25 CG + 2000 P	31.25 CG + 2000 P	31.25 CG + 2000 P	31.25 CG + 1000 P	31.25 CG + 1000 P	31.25 CG + 1000 P	15.6 CG + 16000 P	15.6 CG + 16000 P	15.6 CG + 16000 P	15.6 CG + 8000 P	15.6 CG + 8000 P	15.6 CG + 8000 P
G	15.6 CG + 4000 P	15.6 CG + 4000 P	15.6 CG + 4000 P	15.6 CG + 2000 P	15.6 CG + 2000 P	15.6 CG + 2000 P	15.6 CG + 1000 P	15.6 CG + 1000 P	15.6 CG + 1000 P			
H												

Fig. 5.24 MIC of *S. aureus* MTCC 737 with antibiotic Penicillin and test compound CG from checkerboard method

Table 5.15 FIC INDEX of *S. aureus* MTCC 737 with antibiotic Penicillin and test compound CG

	250 CG + 1000 P	125 CG + 2000 P	62.5 CG+4000 P	31.25 CG + 4000 P	156 CG+4000 P
FIC CG	2	1	0.5	0.25	0.125
FIC P	0.125	0.25	0.5	0.5	0.5
FIC I	2.125	1.25	1	0.75	0.625
SIGNIFICANCE	INDIFFERENCE	INDIFFERENCE	ADDITIVE	PARTIAL SYNERGY	PARTIAL SYNERGY

CG:Catechin Gallate, P:Penicillin, I:Index

Chapter 5: Results

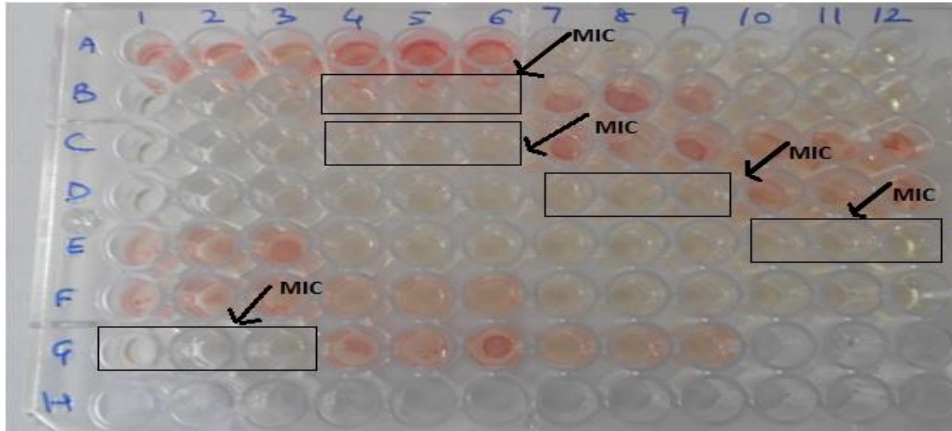


Fig. 5.25 Checkerboard result of *S. aureus* MTCC 96 for five different concentration of antibiotic Penicillin with five different concentration of test compound (CG)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
A	CTRL1	CTRL1	CTRL1	CTRL2	CTRL2	CTRL2	125CG +16000 P	125CG +16000 P	125CG +16000 P	125CG + 8000 P	125CG + 8000 P	125CG + 8000 P
B	125CG + 4000 P	125CG + 4000 P	125CG + 4000 P	125CG + 2000 P	125CG + 2000 P	125CG + 2000 P	125CG + 1000 P	125CG + 1000 P	125CG + 1000 P	62.5 CG + 16000 p	62.5 CG + 16000 p	62.5 CG + 16000 p
C	62.5 CG + 8000 P	62.5 CG + 8000 P	62.5 CG + 8000 P	62.5 CG + 4000 P	62.5 CG + 4000 P	62.5 CG + 4000 P	62.5 CG + 2000 P	62.5 CG + 2000 P	62.5 CG + 2000 P	62.5 CG + 1000 P	62.5CG + 1000 P	62.5 CG + 1000 P
D	31.25 CG + 16000 P	31.25 CG + 16000 P	31.25 CG + 16000 P	31.25 CG + 8000 P	31.25 CG + 8000 P	31.25 CG + 8000 P	31.25 CG + 4000 P	31.25 CG + 4000 P	31.25 CG + 4000 P	31.25 CG + 2000 P	31.25 CG + 2000 P	31.25 CG + 2000 P
E	31.25 CG + 1000 P	31.25 CG + 1000 P	31.25 CG + 1000 P	15.6 CG + 16000 P	15.6 CG + 16000 P	15.6 CG + 16000 P	15.6 CG + 8000 P	15.6 CG + 8000 P	15.6 CG + 8000 P	15.6 CG + 4000 P	15.6 CG + 4000 P	15.6 CG + 4000 P
F	15.6 CG + 2000 P	15.6 CG + 2000 P	15.6 CG + 2000 P	15.6 CG + 1000 P	15.6 CG + 1000 P	15.6 CG + 1000 P	7.8 CG + 16000 P	7.8 CG + 16000 P	7.8 CG + 16000 P	7.8 CG + 8000 P	7.8 CG + 8000 P	7.8 CG + 8000 P
G	7.8CG + 4000 P	7.8 CG + 4000 P	7.8 CG + 4000 P	7.8 CG + 2000 P	7.8 CG + 2000 P	7.8CG + 2000 P	7.8 CG + 1000 P	7.8 CG + 1000 P	7.8 CG + 1000 P			
H												

Fig. 5.26 MIC of *S. aureus* MTCC 96 with antibiotic Penicillin and test compound CG from checkerboard method

Table 5.16 FIC INDEX of *S. aureus* MTCC 96 with antibiotic Penicillin and test compound CG

	125CG + 2000 P	62.5 CG + 4000 P	31.25 CG + 4000 P	15.6 CG + 4000 P	7.8CG + 4000 P
FIC CG	2	1	0.5	0.25	0.125
FIC P	0.25	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
FIC I	2.25	1.5	1	0.75	0.625
SIGNIFICANCE	INDIFFERENCE	INDIFFERENCE	ADDITIVE	PARTIAL SYNERGY	PARTIAL SYNERGY

CG: Catechin Gallate, P:Penicillin, I:Index

Chapter 5: Results

Table 5. 17. Summary of FIC Values for all three strains *S. aureus* for antibiotic Oxacillin (O) and Penicillin (P) with Catechin Gallate (CG)

Test isolate	Drug Combination (A/B)	MIC-Drug A (µg/ml)	MIC-Drug B (µg/ml)	Combination MIC (A/B) (µg/ml)	FIC-Drug A	FIC-Drug B	FICI	Interpretation	MIC Reduction (folds)
NCTC 6571	CG / Oxacillin	62.5	500	125/62.5	2	0.125	2.125	Indifference	
				62.5/62.5	1	0.125	1.125	Indifference	
				31.25/62.5	0.5	0.125	0.625	Partial synergy	8 fold
				15.6/62.5	0.25	0.125	0.375	Synergy	8 fold
				7.8/62.5	0.125	0.125	0.25	Synergy	8 fold
	CG / Penicillin	62.5	8000	125/2000	2	0.25	2.25	Indifference	
				62.5/4000	1	0.5	1.5	Indifference	
				31.25/2000	0.5	0.25	0.75	Partial synergy	4 fold
				15.6/4000	0.25	0.5	0.75	Partial synergy	2 fold
				7.8/2000	0.125	0.25	0.375	Synergy	4 fold
MTCC 737	CG / Oxacillin	125	500	250/62.5	2	0.125	2.125	Indifference	
				125/62.5	1	0.125	1.125	Indifference	
				62.5/62.5	0.5	0.125	0.625	Partial synergy	8 fold
				31.25/62.5	0.25	0.125	0.375	Synergy	8 fold
				15.6/125	0.125	0.25	0.375	Synergy	4 fold
	CG/ Penicillin	125	8000	250/1000	2	0.125	2.125	Indifference	
				125/2000	1	0.25	1.25	Indifference	
				62.5/4000	0.5	0.5	1	Additive	2 fold
				31.25/4000	0.25	0.5	0.75	Partial synergy	2 fold
				15.6/4000	0.125	0.5	0.625	Partial synergy	2 fold
MTCC 96	CG / Oxacillin	62.5	500	125/62.5	2	0.125	2.125	Indifference	
				62.5/62.5	1	0.125	1.125	Indifference	
				31.25/62.5	0.5	0.125	0.625	Partial synergy	8 fold
				15.6/125	0.25	0.25	0.5	Synergy	4 fold
				7.8/125	0.125	0.25	0.375	Synergy	4 fold
	CG/ Penicillin	62.5	8000	125/2000	2	0.25	2.25	Indifference	
				62.5/4000	1	0.5	1.5	Indifference	
				31.25/4000	0.5	0.5	1	Additive	2 fold
				15.6/4000	0.25	0.5	0.75	Partial synergy	2 fold
				7.8/4000	0.125	0.5	0.625	Partial synergy	2 fold

MIC:Minimum Inhibitory Concentration, FIC: Fractional Inhibitory Concentration, O:Oxacillin, P:Penicillin,CG:Catechin Gallate

Chapter 5: Results

5.7.3 Time Kill Curve

Synergistic formulations of checkerboard and FIC Index were further tested in time kill assay to see the extent of improvement in the susceptibility of the antibiotics. Time-kill assay results show the decrease in the \log_{10} CFU/ml of viable colonies in all tested formulations, as compared to their respective controls as well as, in the absence of either antibiotic or test compound; which indicates the bactericidal activity of the formulation (Fig.5.27-5.30). *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 formulation of 62.5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ Oxacillin with 7.8 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ of CG, which earlier revealed an 8 folded reduction in MIC of Oxacillin, also revealed 1.7 and approx. 3 \log_{10} reductions in CFU at 12h and 18 h respectively. However, it exhibited more than 6 \log_{10} reduction in CFU count at 24 h (Table 5.18 and Fig.5.27). Similarly, the formulation of 2000 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ Penicillin with 7.8 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ of CG of *S. aureus* NCTC 6571, which earlier revealed, a 4 fold reduction in MIC of Penicillin, finally revealed 1.8 and 3 \log_{10} reductions in CFU at 12h and 18 h. Whereas, this formulation, furthermore, exhibited more than 6 \log_{10} reduction in CFU count at 24 h (Table 5.19 and Fig.5.28). Formulation of 62.5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ of Oxacillin with 31.5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ of CG has enhanced the susceptibility of *S. aureus* MTCC 737, by exhibiting an 8 folds reduction in MIC of Oxacillin. It also revealed 2 and 2.8 \log_{10} reductions in CFU after 12h and 18 h. Further, this formulation induced a 6.7 \log_{10} reduction in CFU after 24 h (Table 5.20 and Fig.5.29). Similar \log_{10} reductions were found in *S. aureus* MTCC 96, formulation of 125 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ Oxacillin with 7.8 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ of CG, where it exhibited a 1.8, 2.8 and 6.9 \log_{10} reductions in CFU after 12h, 18 h and 24 h respectively (Table 5.21 and Fig.5.30). Further, analysis of CFU \log_{10} reductions by two-way ANOVA and Bonferroni Posttests of Multiple comparison, indicated that there was a significant reduction at $P < 0.001$, in *S. aureus* NCTC 6571, between the control and test formulation of Oxacillin at 12, 18 and 24 h. While there was no significant difference was recorded at 0 and 6h (Table 5.18). Similar results were found among the control and test formulation of Penicillin within the same strain (Table 5.19).

Chapter 5: Results

Table 5.18 Comparative kill kinetics of *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 with absence of any antibiotic, in presence of Oxacillin, CG and formulation of Oxacillin and CG

Time(h)	Bacterial Colony Count in Log ₁₀ CFU/ml			
	Control	Oxacillin	CG	Formulation
0	6 ± 0.00	6 ± 0.00	6 ± 0.00	6 ± 0.00
6	6.9 ± 0.06	7 ± 0.10	6.9 ± 0.00	6.7 ± 0.06
12	8.3 ± 0.06	8.3 ± 0.00	8.1 ± 0.20	6.6 ^{***} ± 0.00
18	8.9 ± 0.20	8.5 ^{**} ± 0.06	8.5 ^{***} ± 0.06	6 ^{***} ± 0.20
24	6.3 ± 0.06	6.6 [*] ± 0.06	6.5 ± 0.4	0 ^{***}

Data presented are mean ± standard deviation of three replications. Means with different superscript letters are different by Bonferroni post test (p<0.05) where ^{***}P<0.001, ^{**}P<0.01, ^{*}P<0.05

Table 5.19 Comparative kill kinetics of *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 with absence of any antibiotic, in presence of Penicillin, CG and formulation of Penicillin and CG

Time(h)	Bacterial Colony Count in Log ₁₀ CFU/ml			
	Control	Penicillin	CG	Formulation
0	6 ± 0.00	6 ± 0.00	6 ± 0.00	6 ± 0.00
6	6.9 ± 0.06	7 ± 0.06	6.9 ± 0.0	6.8 ± 0.06
12	8.3 ± 0.06	7.3 ^{***} ± 0.06	8.1 ± 0.20	6.5 ^{***} ± 0.01
18	8.9 ± 0.20	8.7 ± 0.20	8.5 ^{***} ± 0.06	5.8 ^{***} ± 0.02
24	6.3 ± 0.06	6.7 ^{***} ± 0.06	6.5 ± 0.4	0 ^{***}

Data presented are mean ± standard deviation of three replications. Means with different superscript letters are different by Bonferroni post test (p<0.05) where ^{***}P<0.001, ^{**}P<0.01, ^{*}P<0.05

Chapter 5: Results

Table 5.20 Comparative kill kinetics of *S. aureus* MTCC 737 with absence of any antibiotic, in presence of Oxacillin, CG and formulation of Oxacillin and CG

Time(h)	Bacterial Colony Count in Log ₁₀ CFU/ml			
	Control	Oxacillin	CG	Formulation
0	6 ± 0.00	6 ± 0.00	6 ± 0.00	6 ± 0.00
6	7.3 ± 0.06	7.2 ± 0.00	7 ^{***} ± 0.06	6.9 ^{***} ± 0.00
12	8.6 ± 0.00	8.6 ± 0.00	8.4 ^{***} ± 0.06	6.6 ^{***} ± 0.06
18	8.8 ± 0.06	8.7 ± 0.06	8.6 ^{***} ± 0.10	6 ^{***} ± 0.06
24	6.7 ± 0.1	6.6 ± 0.06	6.6* ± 0.06	0 ^{***}

Data presented are mean ± standard deviation of three replications. Means with different superscript letters are different by Bonferroni post test ($p < 0.05$) where ^{***} $P < 0.001$, ^{**} $P < 0.01$, ^{*} $P < 0.05$

Table 5.21 Comparative kill kinetics of *S. aureus* MTCC 96 with absence of any antibiotic, in presence of Oxacillin, CG and formulation of Oxacillin and CG

Time(h)	Bacterial Colony Count in Log ₁₀ CFU/ml			
	Control	Oxacillin	CG	Formulation
0	6 ± 0.00	6 ± 0.00	6 ± 0.00	6 ± 0.00
6	7.3 ± 0.06	7.1 ^{***} ± 0.00	7 ^{***} ± 0.06	6.8 ^{***} ± 0.00
12	8.5 ± 0.06	8.3 ^{***} ± 0.00	8.2 ^{***} ± 0.00	6.6 ^{***} ± 0.06
18	8.8 ± 0.00	7.7 ^{***} ± 0.06	7.6 ^{***} ± 0.00	6 ^{***} ± 0.00
24	6.9 ± 0.00	6.8 ^{**} ± 0.00	6.8 ± 0.06	0 ^{***}

Data presented are mean ± standard deviation of three replications. Means with different superscript letters are different by Bonferroni post test ($p < 0.05$) where ^{***} $P < 0.001$, ^{**} $P < 0.01$, ^{*} $P < 0.05$

Control and test formulation of *S. aureus* MTCC 737 and *S. aureus* MTCC 96 strains, have shown significant reduction at $P < 0.001$ for 6, 12, 18 and 24 h (Table 5.20 and 5.21).

Chapter 5: Results

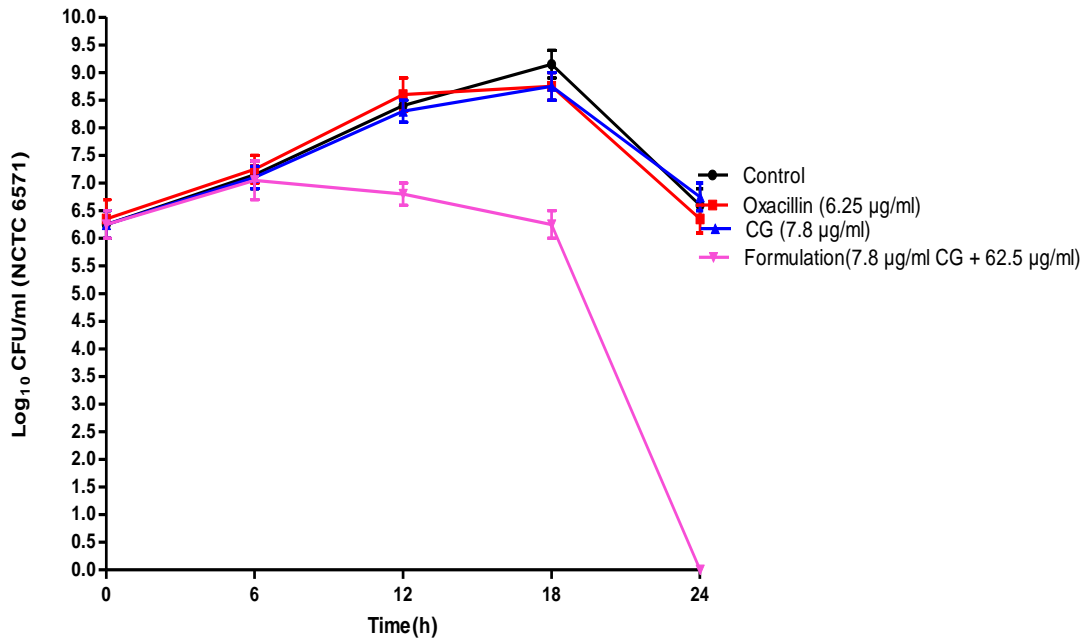


Fig.5.27 Time Kill Curve of *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 alone, with Oxacillin (O), with CG and synergistic FIC combination of Oxacillin and CG
Data represented are mean \pm standard deviation of three replicates.

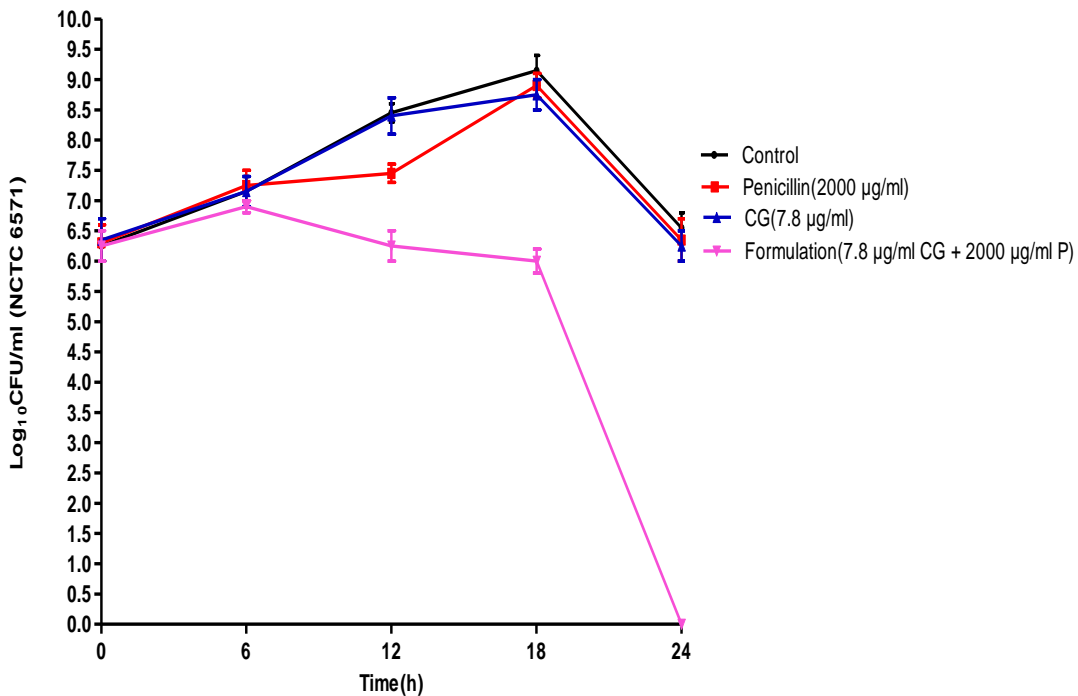


Fig.5.28 Time Kill Curve of *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 alone, with Penicillin (P), with CG and synergistic FIC combination of Penicillin and CG
Data represented are mean \pm standard deviation of three replicates.

Chapter 5: Results

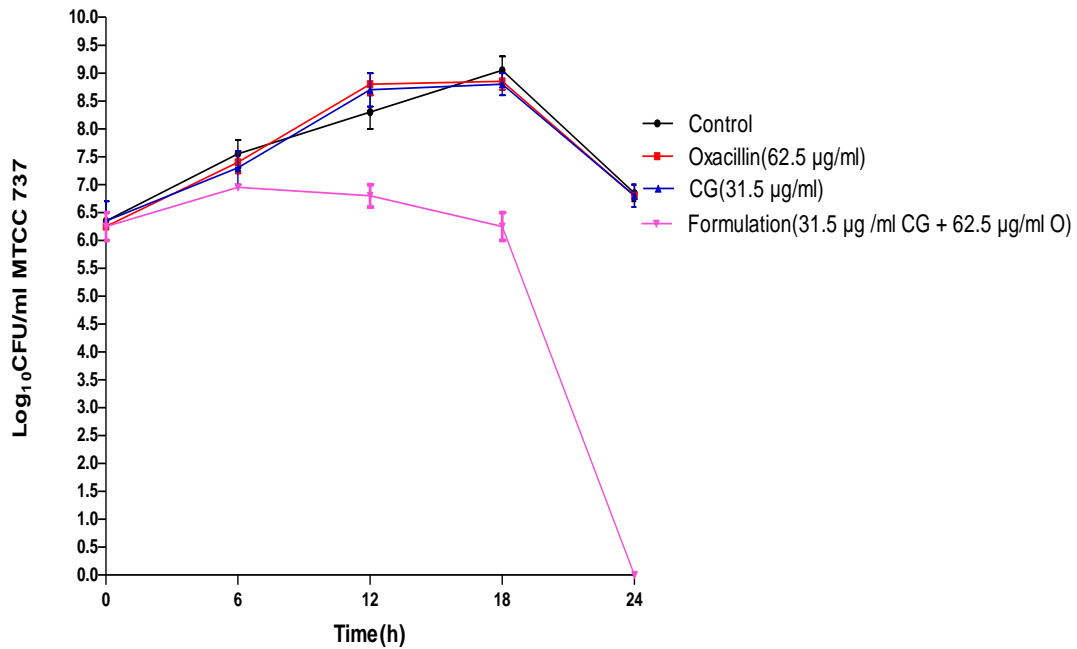


Fig.5.29 Time Kill Curve of *S. aureus* MTCC 737 alone, with Oxacillin, with CG and synergistic FIC combination of Oxacillin and CG.

Data represented are mean \pm standard deviation of three replicates.

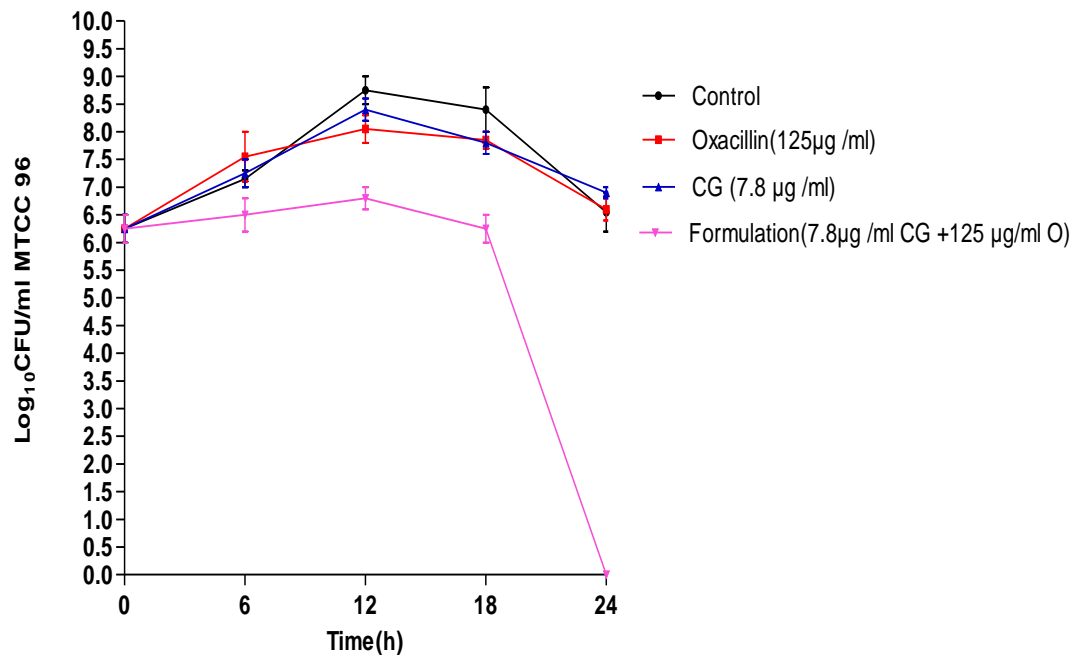


Fig.5.30 Time Kill Curve of *S. aureus* MTCC 96 alone, with Oxacillin, with CG and synergistic FIC combination of Oxacillin (O) and Catechin Gallate (CG)

Data represented are mean \pm standard deviation of three replicates.

5.8 Evaluation of *FemA* protein functional Expression

5.8.1 nLC-MS

Seven samples having three controls and four test samples were prepared for nLC-MS analysis. Most synergic and significant test samples proved by FIC index and time kill curve are further analyzed for mass studies. Control samples include muropeptides of *S. aureus* NCTC 6571, *S. aureus* MTCC 737 and *S. aureus* MTCC 96, which are coded as 6C, 7C and 9C. While test samples muropeptides are coded as 6FCO, 7FCO, 9FCO and 6FCP, which are prepared by treating all three *S. aureus* strains with the combination of CG and antibiotic Oxacillin except 6FCP where Oxacillin is replaced by Penicillin (as mentioned previously in section 4.8.2). Expected molecular mass for muropeptides of *S. aureus* strains is 1025.503, 1139.544 and 1253.586 in case of monoglycine, triglycine and pentaglycine with sugars and pentapeptide.

Observed Masses with corresponding intensities are shown in Total Ion Chromatogram (TIC) of respective figures (Fig. 5.31-5.37). Relative decrease in percentage of peak area of 6FCO and 6FCP is 43% and 65.3% in monoglycine, 47.4 % and 62.6 % in triglycine, 70% and 85.2% in pentaglycine. As compared to 6C; Percentage of peak area observed for observed mass of 6FCO, and 6FCP has been decreased in all three cases of PGN (Fig. 5.31-5.33). Similarly, in 7FCO and 9FCO percentage of peak area has been decreased from their control 7C and 9C peak area (Fig.5.34-5.37). Relative decrease in percentage of peak area of 7FCO and 9FCO is 97.2% and 78.2% in monoglycine, 80% and 72.9 % in triglycine, 57.5 % and 32.8 % in pentaglycine (Table.5.22 in Appendix)

Further analysis of peak area (in percentage) by two-tailed paired t-test, indicated that there was a significant reduction ($P=0.0485$, $R^2 =0.9053$), $P < 0.5$, in *S.aureus* NCTC 6571 between the control and the formulation of 62.5 µg/ml Oxacillin with 7.8 µg/ml of CG. Similar

Chapter 5: Results

significance was found among the control and formulation of 2000 µg/ml Penicillin with 7.8 µg/ml of CG in the same strain where ($P=0.0135$, $R^2 =0.9732$), $P < 0.5$ (Fig.5.38). *S. aureus* MTCC 737 and MTCC 96 strains, have shown significant reduction at ($R^2 =0.9999$ and $P<0.0001$) for the formulation of 62.5 µg/ml Oxacillin with 31.5 µg/ml of CG and ($P=0.0049$, $R^2 =0.9901$), $P < 0.01$ for the formulation of 125 µg/ml Oxacillin with 7.8 µg/ml of CG respectively (Fig.5.39 and Fig.5.40).

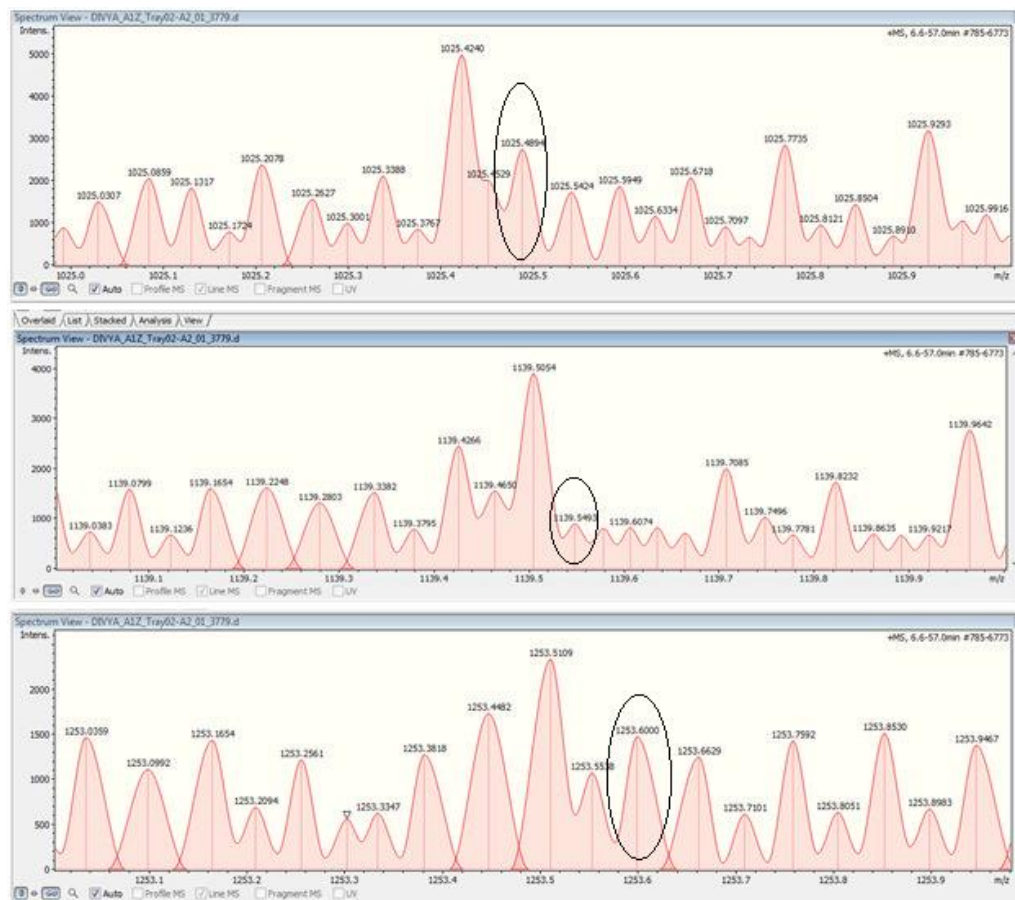


Fig 5.31 TIC of *S.aureus* NCTC 6571

Chapter 5: Results

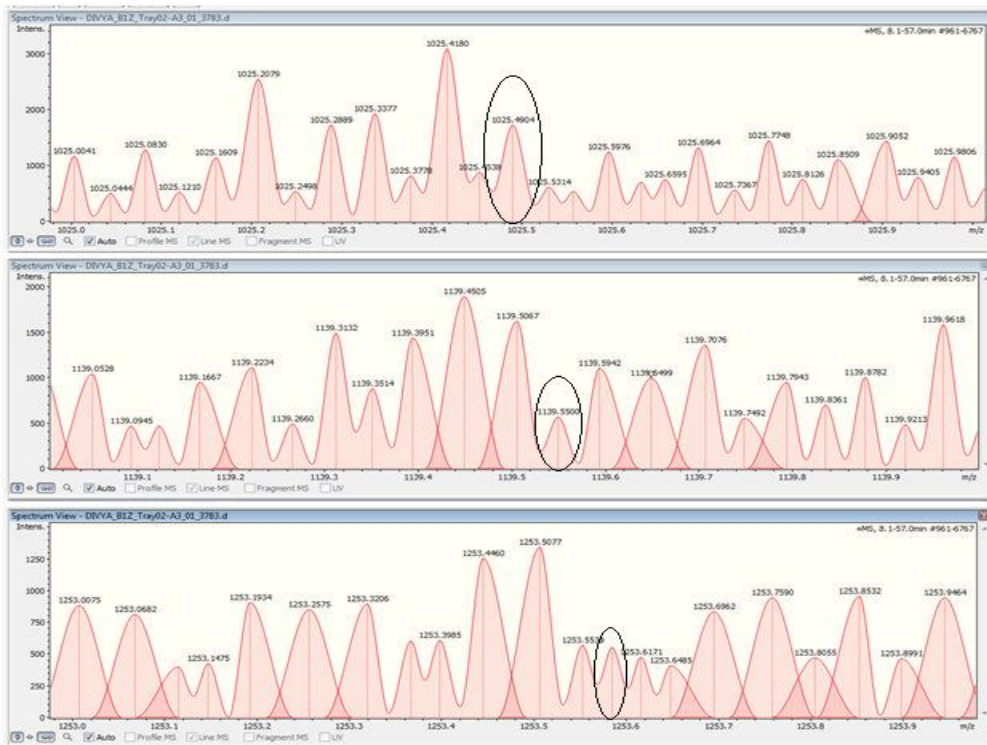


Fig 5.32 TIC of *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 in presence of Oxacillin and CG

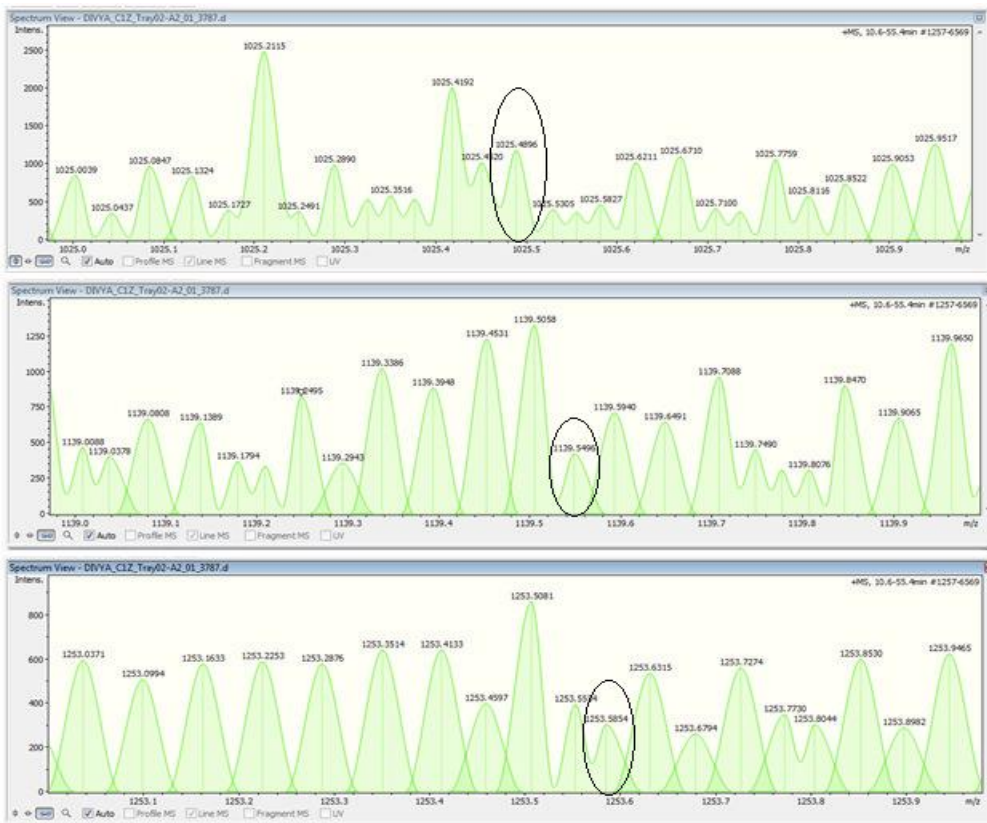


Fig. 5.33 TIC of *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 in presence of Penicillin and CG

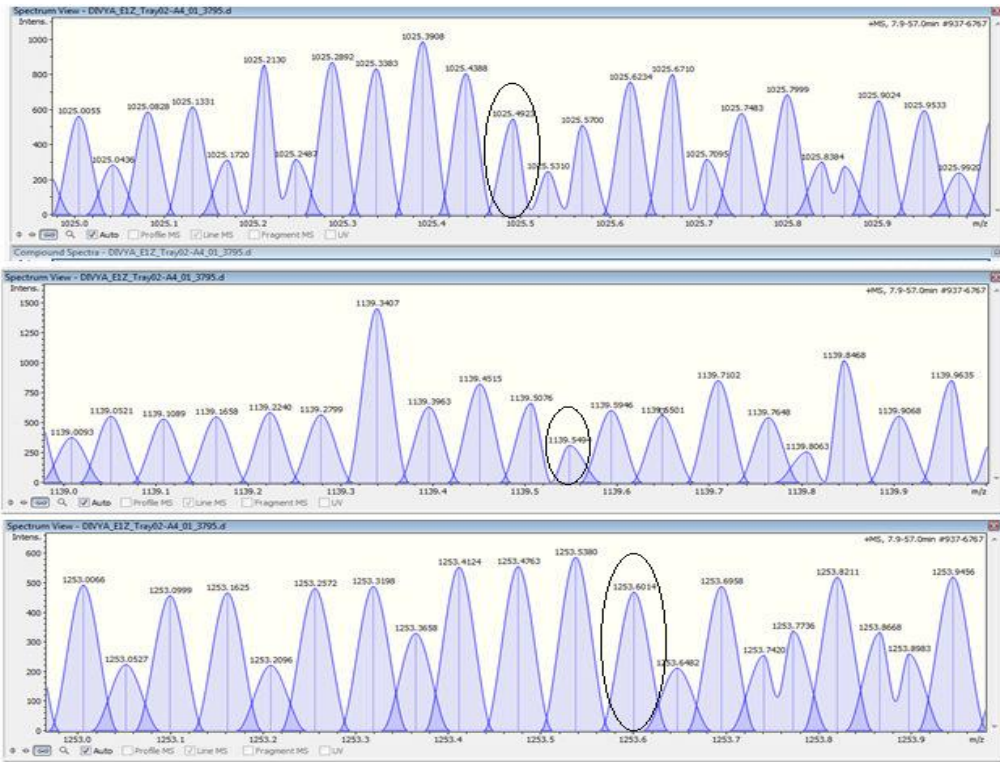


Fig. 5.34 TIC of *S. aureus* MTCC 737

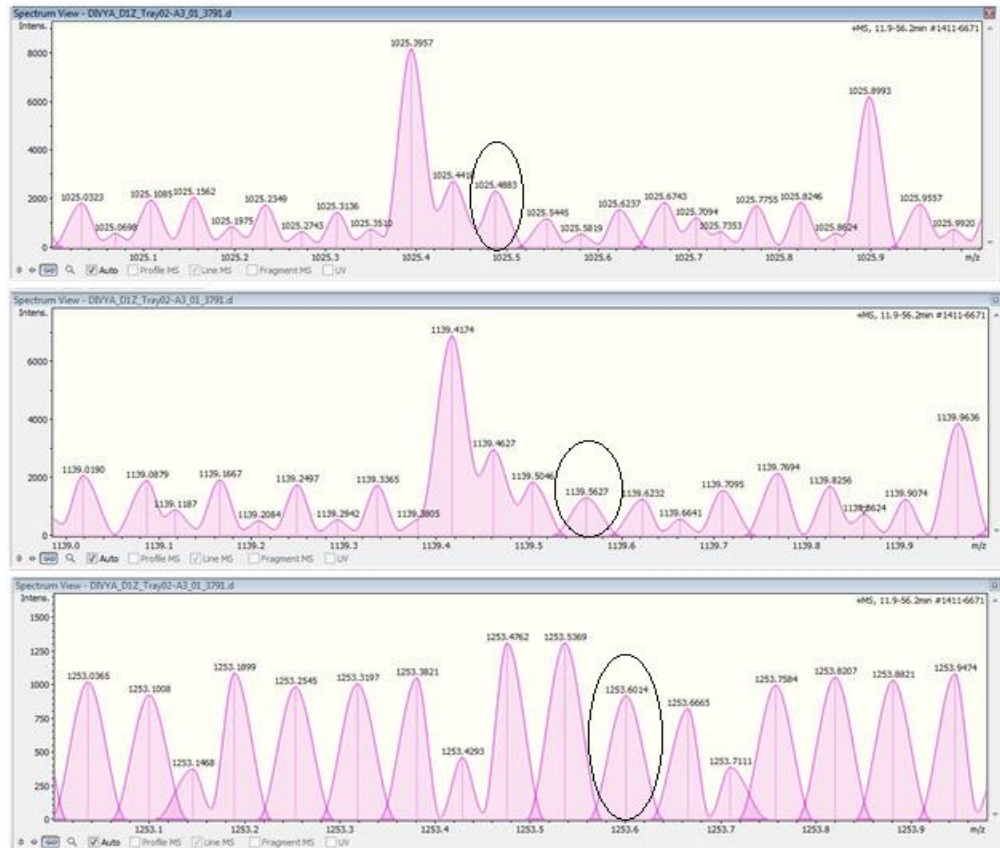


Fig. 5.35 TIC of *S. aureus* MTCC 737 in presence of Oxacillin and CG

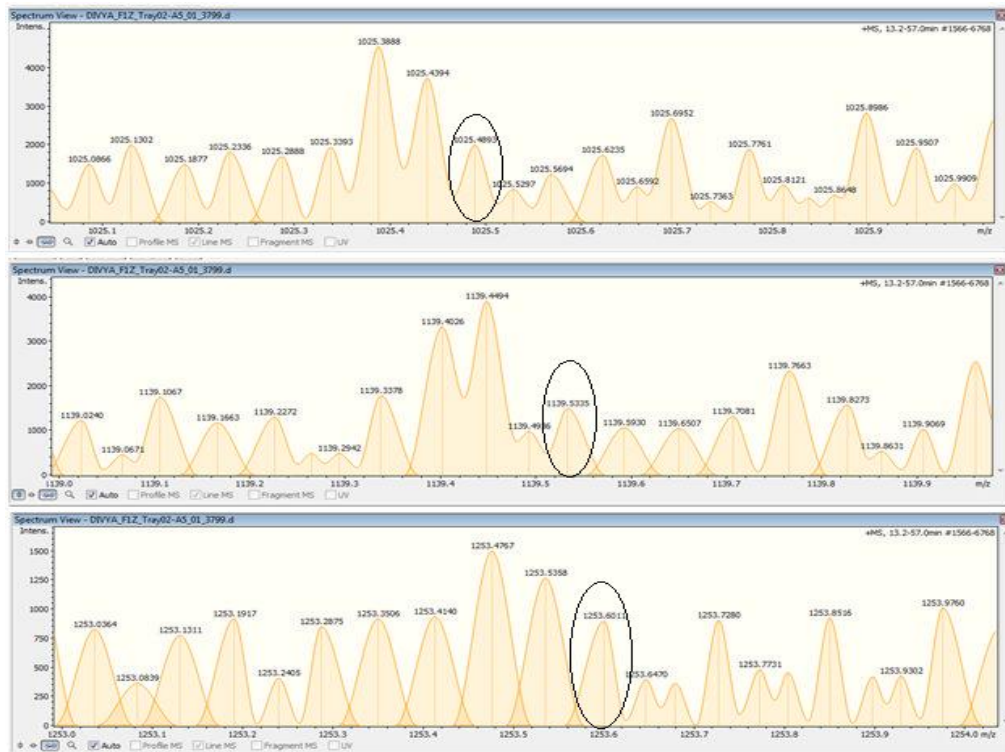


Fig. 5.36 TIC of *S. aureus* MTCC 96

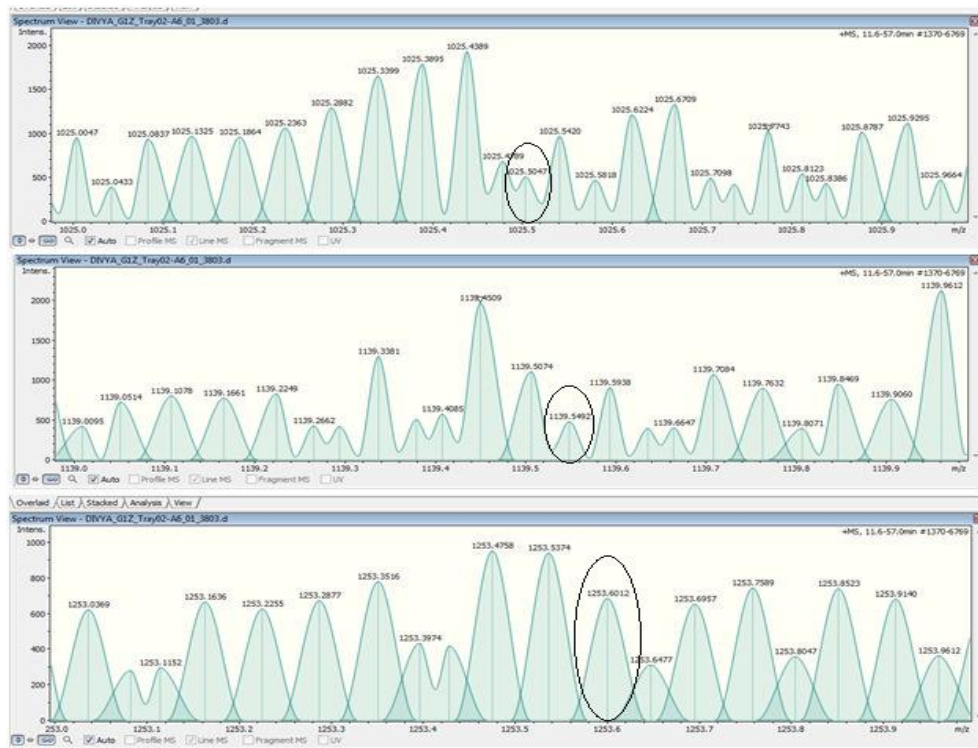


Fig. 5.37 TIC of *S. aureus* MTCC 96 in presence of Oxacillin and CG

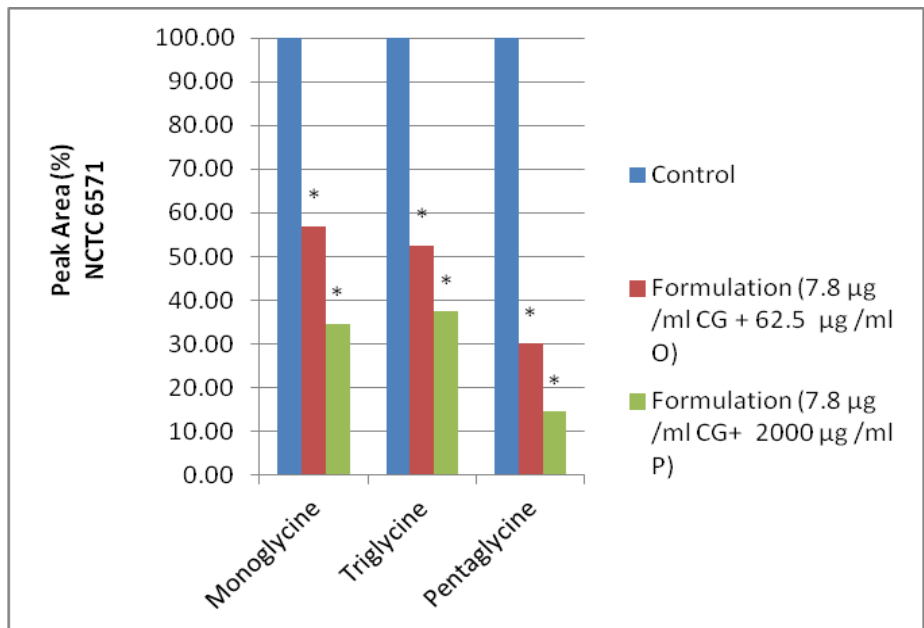


Fig. 5.38 Comparison of Peak area (%) of *S.aureus* NCTC 6571 in absence and presence of antibiotics and test compound formulation

Data indicated significant reduction by two-tailed paired t-test, (p<0.05)* refers to P < 0.5

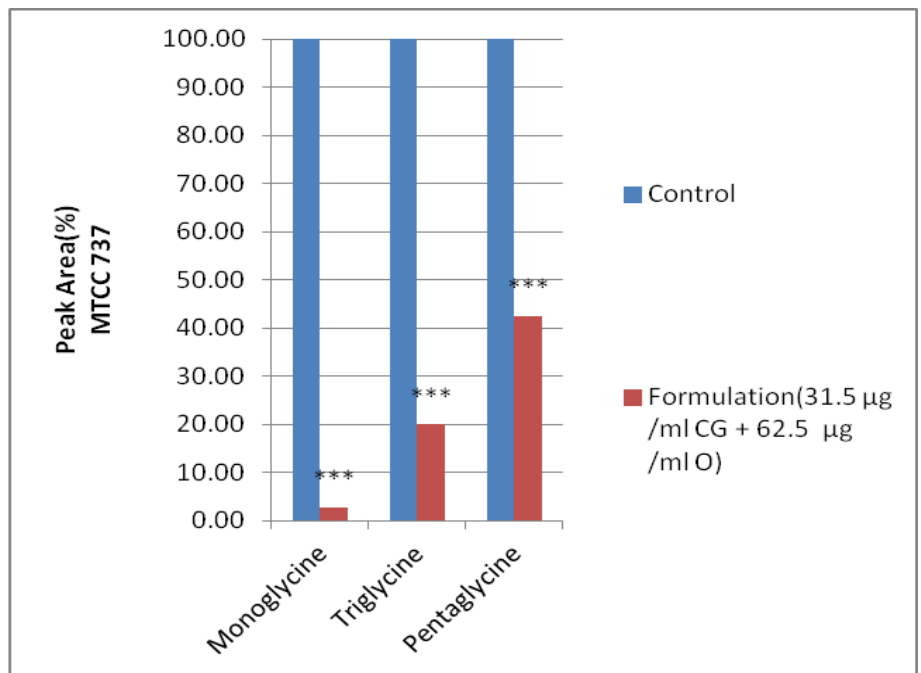


Fig. 5.39 Comparison of Peak area (%) of *S.aureus* MTCC 737 in absence and presence of antibiotic and test compound formulation.

Data indicated significant reduction by two-tailed paired t-test, (p<0.05) (***) refers to P<0.0001)

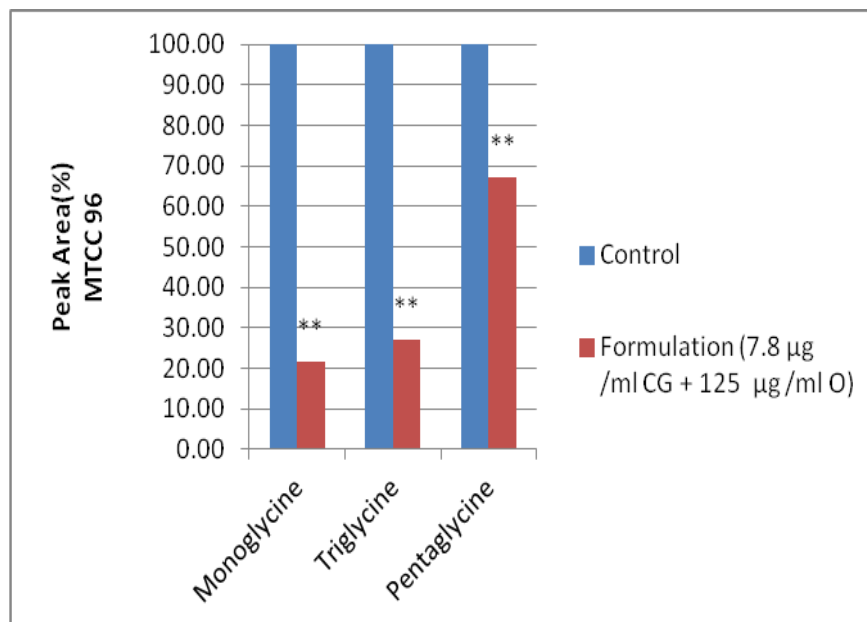


Fig. 5.40 Comparison of Peak area (%) of *S. aureus* MTCC 96 in absence and presence of antibiotic and test compound formulation.

Data indicated significant reduction by two-tailed paired t-test, ($p < 0.05$) (** refers to $P < 0.01$)

Chapter 6: Discussion

Drug resistance among microbes is the burgeoning problem from last few decades, which is increasing day by day. As reported by global surveillance reports of Australian Group on Antimicrobial Resistance (AGAR) 2013, World Health Organization (WHO) 2014, European Antimicrobial Resistance Surveillance Network (EARS-Net) 2014, Center for Disease Dynamics, Economics and Policy (CDDEP) 2015, Public Health Agency of Canada (PHAC) 2015. The resistance development in *S.aureus* has been reported to be fastest due to the genetic plasticity (Goerke and Wolz, 2004; Kavanagh *et al.*, 2014; Gelband *et al.*, 2015). It is responsible for majority of chronic infections in hospital and community settings (Ray *et al.*, 2011). MRSA prevalence rate is up to 50% in most of the countries like US, India, China, Hongkong, Singapore, UK, Greece, Northern Ireland, etc. There is an ongoing war between the clinicians and this superbug to develop methods to overcome resistance. Designing of new drugs for novel targets is a very expensive and time-consuming process as they involve screening of the large number of compounds experimentally, multiple validation tests and failure of experiments in pre-clinical and clinical trials. Computational aided drug designing (CADD) is another way out to prevent the screening failure of the large number of compounds, by performing it virtually, which can save time and reduces the cost of drug development (Sliwoski *et al.*, 2014). Identification of modulators for previously discovered drugs with CADD, to treat bacterial infections caused by multiple drugs resistant (MDR) and total drug resistant (TDR) strains can be a better method to overcome resistance.

Natural products and their derivatives have played a significant role in pharmaceutical research. Approximately 40-50% drug's source is natural products or their derivatives (Lahlou, 2013). It can be plant, animal, fungus or other microbes. Classical examples of some medicines from plant sources are Aspirin, Digitoxin, Morphine, Quinine, and Pilocarpine (Newmann and Cragg, 2016). Epibatidine, Cilazapril and Captopril are examples of animal

Chapter 6: Discussion

sources (Cragg and Newman, 2013). Resources of most of the antibiotics are microbial, which includes Penicillin from the filamentous fungus *Penicillium notatum*, Tetracycline from *Streptomyces aureofaciens*, Chloramphenicol from *Streptomyces venezuela*. Imipenem, Norcardicin and aztreonam are the example of drugs, which are synthesized from microbial sources (Siddiqui *et al.*, 2014). These secondary metabolites have a lot of potential as they are used as anti-inflammatory, anti-cancer, anti-hypertensive, anti-infective, immune-suppressant, as well as in neurological disorders. Along with these, they provide ample opportunities against resistance.

Among all natural product modulators, the maximum well-known and nicely-studied are the flavonoids, which consists of flavonols, flavones, isoflavone, flavanols, flavanolols, flavanones and chalcones. Moreover, every person day by day consumes a tremendous amount of flavonoids from fruits, vegetables, meal supplements, tea and wine, etc. Various studies are conducted worldwide to prove the efficacy of these flavonoids in interfering the mechanism of multiple drug resistance genes by either alone or in combination with other antibiotics.

Flavonoids like 3-4-7-Trimethoxyflavone, 6-Prenylchrysin, Acacetin, Chrysin, Eupatin, Genistein, Fumitremorgin C, Plumbagin is the modulators of ABC transporters, 5-Bromotetrandrine, Abietane diterpene, Agosterol A and derivatives, Alisol B 23-acetate, Amooranin, Baicalein and derivatives, Biochanin, Catechins, Cepharanthine, Curcumin; Grape fruit juice extracts are modulators of P-glycoproteins. Similarly, Cannabinoids, Cepharanthine, Curcumin, *Ginkgo biloba* extract, *Kaempferia parviflora* extracts, Quercetin, Myricetin, are multi drug resistant protein modulators in cancer chemotherapy (Wu *et al.*, 2011). *Terminalia arjuna* herbal drug which comprises of tannins, flavonoids, Gallic acid, ellagic acid, phytosterols are effective for *Streptococcus mutants* ATCC-700610; *Streptococcus gallolyticus* ATCC 9809, *S.*

Chapter 6: Discussion

aureus; *E. faecalis* ATCC-29212 (Vadhana *et al.*, 2015). Other flavonoids from green tea like EGCG and ECG have been reported for their synergistic activity with Norfloxacin, Imipenem, Panipenem and β -lactams against multi drug resistant pathogens (Zhao *et al.*, 2001; Gibbons *et al.*, 2004; Taylor *et al.*, 2005; Stapleton *et al.*, 2006). Therefore, in these study catechins and their isomers are explored for their potential as synergist inhibitors of *FemA* protein to potentiates the β -lactam antibiotics against MRSA.

Virtual screening of catechin isomers were performed by AutoDock Vina and Dock tools. Basic requirements of these tools are the 3-D structure of target site and information of the pockets where a ligand can bind and can modulate its function (Kumar, 2013) In the absence of experimental 3-D structure of target, computational structures are designed through homology modeling technique, but in our study X-ray crystallography structure of *FemA* protein was available in RCSB-PDB database with PDB id 1LRZA (Benson *et al.*, 2002). Availability of 3-D structure alone is not the sufficient, next vital factor is the information of an active site where a ligand can bind and inhibit its activity.

In the absence of exact active site location, it can be predicted through various active site prediction tools. Therefore, in this study we have used four most popular active site prediction tools i.e. SiteHound, Q-Sitefinder, PocketFinder and CASTp (Sliwoski *et al.*, 2014; Leelananda, and Lindert, 2016). These tools predicted multiple active sites in 1LRZA. To filter these active sites, we have selected the active sites of only L-domain, which is significant for inhibition of the function of this protein (Benson *et al.*, 2002). However, when we correlate these active sites predicted by the four different tools in L-domain, we found no significant correlation in them (Fig. 6.1. Appendix). Therefore, we used Blind Docking for AutoDock Vina Docking tool, where we generated grid box around complete 3-D structure of *FemA* protein and these dimensions were then used for docking. While Dock used biggest pocket predicted,

Chapter 6: Discussion

by its active site prediction tool Sphgen. As shown in result's section, both the tools predicted same ligand (CG with PubChem id 6419835) as best inhibitor or Hit for the target protein.

As the central goal of SB CADD is identification of the compounds that are target specific, bind tightly to the target site, i.e., with massive reduction in free energy and having good ADMET properties to become a drug-like molecule (Sliwoski *et al.*, 2014). For hit to lead optimization or to estimate drug-likeness various *in silico* tools are available, which can predict the chemical and metabolic stability, oral bioavailability and minimum toxicity (Young, 2009; Hopkins 2011). Successful applications of these methods are required, to validate the lead *in vitro* and *in vivo* to become a drug (Leelananda, and Lindert, 2016). It was performed by LigPlot+, OSIRIS molecule property explorer and Lipinski Filter tool of SCFBIO in terms of Drug score, which is calculated by combine value of Drug-likeness, clog P, LogS, molecular weight and four toxicity tests (Mutagenicity Risk, Tumourgenicity risk, irritating and reproductive effects) furthermore, by Lipinski Rule of Five. In our study, CG again qualifies these tests with Drug score of 0.74 and violation of only one Lipinski rule, which shows the potential of CG as drug, therefore, furthermore, *in vitro*; experiments were performed with this ligand molecule (Singhal and Saxena, 2015). Previously various computationally discovered drugs were approved by FDA in clinical studies such as Sorafenib (Nexavar, 1) from Bayer, which is used for treatment of renal cell carcinoma and hepatocellular carcinoma, as well as thyroid cancer; another drug is Ataluren (Translarna) used for treatment of genetic disorder due to nonsense mutation (Newman and Cragg, 2016).

In vitro, testing was performed using standard cultures of *S. aureus*, including NCTC 6571, MTCC 737 and MTCC 96 and standard β -lactam antibiotics of Oxacillin and Penicillin sodium salts from HiMedia, India, while CG sodium salts were purchased from Sigma Aldrich. In the present study, before evaluation of CG on *S. aureus* cultures, molecular typing was

Chapter 6: Discussion

adopted for MRSA genes. MRSA strains have additional (PBP2a), which functions in the presence of β -lactam antibiotics and perform the function of host pbps (Reynolds and Brown, 1985). PBP2a is encoded by *mecA* gene. *SCCmecA* gene is the main molecular determinant of resistance, and it spreads by horizontal transfer of gene among susceptible strains. Selective antibiotics usage created a pressure, which results into mutations and deletions in *mecI* or promoter/operator regions of *mecA*, resulting repressor inactivation and PBP2a expression (Kobayashi *et al.*, 1998; Stapleton and Taylor, 2002 and Shukla *et al.*, 2004).

Along with *mecA* there are other essential factors, which are also responsible for methicillin resistance *viz.* *Fem* or auxiliary (*aux*) factor, *murF*, *fmtA-C*, *sigB*, *hmr A*, *hmr B*, *dlt*, *pbp2*, *ctaA*, while factors like *ilm* and global regulators *agr* and *sar* genes have minute effect on resistance (Berger-bachi, 1994; Kobayashi *et al.*, 1994; Chambers, 1997). Therefore, in this study, one primer set for *mecA* and another primer for *FemA* were used. The primer set 1 used for *mecA* gene was [5'AAA ATC GAT GGT AAA GGT TGG C 3' (F); 5' AGT TCT GCA GTA CCG GAT TTG C 3'(R)] and the primer set 2 used was [5'AAA AAA GCA CAT AAC AAG CG 3' (F); 5' GAT AAA GAA GAA ACC AGC AG 3'(R)]. In the present study, 2 out of 3 staphylococcal isolates exhibited *mecA* gene amplicon at 533 bp using primer set 1 while all 3 isolates exhibited *femA* gene amplicon at 132 bp. First Primer set, *mecA* gene has been used for phenotypic detection of nosocomial *mecA* positive staphylococcal isolates (De Giusti *et al.*, 1999). Second primer set which is of *femA* gene is used for detection of essential source of *FemA* protein, which is requisite for the peptidoglycan biosynthesis (Maidhof *et al.*, 1991). Therefore, *FemA* protein is used as a drug target to inhibit the cell wall biosynthesis to potentiate the β -lactam antibiotics.

For *in vitro* validation of the antimicrobial properties of CG various assays were performed such as MIC determination, checkerboard, FIC Index and Time kills kinetics. It can

Chapter 6: Discussion

be precisely achieved if the growth of the microorganism is pre-recorded in terms of lag phase, log phase, stationary phase and the death phase which was achieved by Miles and Misra's method of CFU counting at different time intervals. Some studies have shown that susceptible strain of *S. aureus* had generation time of 29 min while resistant strains had generation time of 40 min (Ender *et al.*, 2004). Similarly, in other species generation time of Ciprofloxacin, resistant *S. epidermidis* was reported as 39 min (Gustafsson *et al.*, 2003). In our study, we also found average generation time of 45 min, which suggests the resistant behavior of the test organisms

MIC is a standard parameter to define the lowest concentration of an antimicrobial agent, that inhibits the growth of microorganism and that can be visible with the naked eye, after overnight incubation period (Andrews, 2001). It is also used for other susceptibility testing methods. The MIC values of drugs are quantified by using conventional methods, in determination of antimicrobial activities of various β -lactam antibiotics as well as the test compound CG on microorganism.

MIC results have shown all three staphylococcal cultures are resistant to Oxacillin and Penicillin. While, as compared to β -lactam antibiotics, MIC of CG was very less in all three cultures, i.e. 62.5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ in *S. aureus* NCTC 6571, *S. aureus* MTCC 96 and it was found to be 125 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ in MTCC 737. Whereas MIC for antibiotic Oxacillin and Penicillin, obtained was 500 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ and 8000 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ respectively for all three cultures. Similar MIC was reported for antibiotic Oxacillin in MRSA strains BB568, EMRSA-15 and EMRSA-16 (64 to >512 $\mu\text{g/ml}$), while MIC reported for various gallic acids, alkyl gallates, and 14 different catechins was very high (64 to >256 mg/l) as compared to our results (Stapleton *et al.*, 2004). Hence, MIC predicts the antibacterial properties of CG in all staphylococcal strains.

Chapter 6: Discussion

As checkerboard method is a standard assay to evaluate the antibacterial behavior of two or more drugs in different combinations in terms of MIC (Hsieh *et al.*, 1993; Pemmaraju *et al.*, 2013; Stapleton *et al.*, 2006; Soe *et al.*, 2009). Generally, two-four fold dilutions of MIC values of drug alone are used in combinations with two-four fold dilutions of another drug. Multiple drugs can be used for analysis. Checkerboard method is one of the best methods to choose the best combination of drugs for antibacterial behavior. 16 *Brucella melitensis* strains from blood cultures were used to investigate the treatment of brucellosis, by checkerboard method for the different combinations of antibiotics such as rifampin with doxycycline, rifampin with trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole, trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole with doxycycline, doxycycline with streptomycin and ciprofloxacin with azithromycin (Orhan *et al.*, 2005). In *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* multidrug resistant strain's checkerboard method was used to evaluate the effect of combination of antibiotics therapy, where synergistic interaction was found between kanamycin and ampicillin (Jain *et al.*, 2011).

Synergy testing of bacterial strains like *Escherichia coli* ATCC 35218, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* ATCC 27853, *Enterobacter cloacae* ATCC 23355 and *S. aureus* ATCC 29213 with various combinations of cefepime or ceftazidime with tobramycin or ciprofloxacin was performed by using time-kill and checkerboard techniques (White *et al.*, 1996). For determination of synergistic effect of emodin with ampicillin or Oxacillin, checkerboard method was used for MRSA and MSSA strains (Lee *et al.*, 2010). Along with combination studies of antibiotics; it is the most essential method of analysis, for evaluation of synergistic behavior of a modulator to a specific antibiotic or combination of antibiotics for improving their effect. Hence similar methods were applied for the validation of antibacterial properties of CG in presence of β -lactam antibiotics.

Chapter 6: Discussion

FIC index is an inhibitory concentration of multiple drug fractions in a combination. It is a numerical value to analyze the outcomes of checkerboard method. It is calculated by summation of FIC of combination drugs, where FIC of each drug is calculated by concentration of that drug in combination, which is further divided by drug MIC (Lee *et al.*, 2010). FIC index ranges from 0 > 2. It is measures in terms of synergy, partial synergy, additive, indifference and antagonism. If it is less than 0.5, it indicates the synergistic effect, if FIC index is within 0.5–0.75, it denotes partial synergy and more than 0.75 to 1 represents additive effect whereas >1–2 represent indifference, and >2 indicate antagonism (Lee *et al.*, 2010; Sibanda and Okoh, 2008). FIC of emodin with ampicilin and oxacillin was reported to be 0.37–0.5 and 0.37–0.75, respectively which indicates the synergistic or partial synergistic behavior of emodin against MRSA (Lee *et al.*, 2010). Combinations representing indifference and antagonism can't be used as future drugs. In the present study, we have applied FIC index on checkerboard results, where we found all types of FIC index on different formulations. We have selected only four synergistic formulations having FIC range from 0.25-0.375 were selected for further experimental work.

We found eight-fold reduction in the synergistic formulations of checkerboard and FIC index for all three cultures of *S. aureus* against the antibiotic oxacillin, whereas we found four-fold reduction in MIC of Penicillin only in single strain. No synergistic result was found in formulations of CG with Penicillin in *S. aureus* MTCC 737 and *S. aureus* MTCC 96. Similar studies were reported by Stapleton group; they have tested ECG, EGCG, EC and EGC with Oxacillin in few MRSA strains and found that gallyolated catechins (ECG and EGCG) are more effective to reduce the MIC values of Oxacillin as compared to non-gallyolated catechins such as EGC and Epicatechin. Moreover, they also elucidated that EC, and EGC alone had no significance with β -lactams in MRSA strains, but they can potentate the binding of ECG and

Chapter 6: Discussion

EGCG to staphylococcal cells (Shiota *et al.*, 1999; Zhao *et al.*, 2001; Stapleton *et al.*, 2004; 2006; 2007).

Checkerboard method and time kill kinetics gives reproducible results, in terms of synergy, in the study of multiple drugs (Mackay *et al.*, 2000). Subsequently, synergistic formulation observed from FIC index was further tested by time kill kinetics to observe their synergistic behavior w.r.t. time as compared with the absence of these formulations as control and with the absence of either antibiotic or CG from formulation. Kill kinetic's studies were used to assess the bactericidal and bacteriostatic activity of formulations, by plotting the \log_{10} CFU ml^{-1} w.r.t. time.

Decrease in $\geq 3\log_{10}$ CFU count in original inoculum signifies 99.9% reduction or bactericidal activity in test organism while decrease in $< 3\log_{10}$ CFU count signifies bacteriostatic activity (Silva *et al.*, 2011). In the study of interaction of gallates with antibiotics in MRSA and MSSA strains, only ethyl gallate have shown bactericidal activity at 24h with tetracycline antibiotic for MRSA as well as MSSA (Soe *et al.*, 2010). However, in our study, bactericidal activity was observed after 12 h, in all four synergistic formulations, except *S. aureus* MTCC 737 where it was obtained after 18h.

Time kill kinetics data have shown that bactericidal effect is dependent on presence of both antibiotic as well as CG as well as their Concentration and time. Absence of any of these factors will affect the synergy. Thus time kill studies explain the speed of killing of the test microorganisms by preventing the re-growth by antibacterial combinations (Behm *et al.*, 2005). Moreover, in this study, there is the observation of no re-growth after 12 h in any synergistic case. All the four synergistic formulation of checkerboard have also shown synergy in time kill studies also (Singhal and Saxena, 2017). Similar results were found in methods used for assessing synergistic antibiotic interactions for isolates of *Burkholderia cepacia*,

Chapter 6: Discussion

Staphylococcus aureus and *Klebsiella pneumonia* ((Mackay *et al.*, 2000). Moreover, we have obtained statistical significance in all formulations of time kill studies at $P < 0.001$.

For the further validation, all the three staphylococcal cultures in the absence of any antibacterial agents were used as control sets and all four synergistic combinations of antibacterial agents of *in vitro* studies in their respective cultures were used as test sets for the extraction of mucopeptides/murein for analysis in nLC-MS. Previous studies on *S. aureus* have shown that peptidoglycan chain of *S. aureus* is made of alternate units of sugars and amino acids. Glycan chain consists of two kinds of NAM and NAG sugar units, which are linked to each other by β -1, 4 linkages. Peptide chain is also named as stem peptide, which is made up of 5 amino acids, as L-Ala-D-Gln-L-Lys-D-Ala-D-Ala. L-Alanine of stem peptide is linked by N terminus to the carboxyl group of muramic acid. Further, cross-linking between these different disaccharide units forms a complex called peptidoglycan or murein or mucopeptides. Cross-linking of disaccharide units is due to the formation of pentaglycine bridge between the D-Ala of 4th position of the initial disaccharide with 3rd position L-Lys of another strand. This pentaglycine chain is formed by three FEM proteins, *FEMX* adds first glycine, *FEMA* adds second and third glycine while *FEMB*, which sequentially adds fourth and Fifth glycine (Schleifer and Kandler, 1972; Maidhof, 1991; Chambers, 1997; Rohrer, 1999; Heijenoort, 2001; Benson, 2002; Peacock and Paterson, 2015).

UPLC-MS studies have shown the m/z of 1025.5032 Da and 1253.5861 Da for monoglycine disaccharide and pentaglycine disaccharide respectively (Kuhner *et al.*, 2014). Mostly PGN analysis was performed to know the structural composition of bacteria or to detect the anomaly (Courtin *et al.*, 2006; Packiam *et al.*, 2015). While first extraction method of mucopeptides in *S. aureus* was given by De Jonge group, they have separated the peptides from HPLC and observed the m/z of 1026 Da and 1254 Da for monoglycine disaccharide and

Chapter 6: Discussion

pentaglycine disaccharide (De jonge *et al.*, 1992). Muropeptides composition of *S. aureus* based on MS and amino acid analyzer was explained as NAG+NAM+Stem Peptide+X, here X can be Gly/Tri Gly/Penta Gly/Ala/tetra peptide and molecular mass of NAG+NAM+ Stem peptide was given as 968.4 Da. Addition of one glycine mass will be equivalent to 1025.46 Da (Rohrer *et al.*, 1999). Based on previous studies of PGN analysis in *S.aureus*, in this study we used to validate the effect of CG on β -lactam antibiotics in MRSA strains. Therefore, this study has been designed to compare the disaccharide with monoglycine, triglycine and pentaglycine to study the effect of CG on the functional expression of *FemXAB* proteins.

Similar to above studies, calculated m/z used for this study is 1025.503 Da, 1139.544 Da, and 1253.586 Da for the disaccharide with monoglycine, triglycine and pentaglycine respectively. Generally, most nearby observed m/z values are taken for comparison between control and test sets. Commonly, muropeptides are extracted either by HPC or UPLC and further analyzed by MALDI-TOF or MS (Kuhner *et al.*, 2014; Desmarais *et al.*, 2015). While a different approach was used in *Clostridium difficile*, which include shotgun technique with MS and Byonic software (Bern *et al.*, 2017). Instead of using HPLC/UPLC, nLC was used in present study and peak area of specific mass was obtained through MS.

Comparative analysis of peak area of monoglycine disaccharide, triglycine disaccharide and pentaglycine disaccharide of control and test sets have shown more than 50 % reduction in muropeptides of test sets. Muropeptide reduction justifies the CG as RMA for antibiotic Oxacillin and Penicillin for MRSA strains. Moreover, nLC-MS data have shown that, CG is interfering in the functional activity of all the three proteins *FemX*, *FemA* and *FemB*, it may be due to the formation of CG complex with these proteins. Formation of Fem protein complex with CG may have either modulate the structure of these proteins or modulated the active sites for cell wall biosynthesis substrate. As these three proteins, are homologous to

Chapter 6: Discussion

each other. *FemX* is 36% homologous and 23% identical to *FemA*, while *FemB* is 52% homologous and 39% identical to *FemA* (Ehlert *et al.*, 1997). We can say that CG is responsible for the modulation activity of both *FemX* and *FemB* alongwith *FemA*. Hence, this study has shown that, among all catechin isomers which are generally found in green tea, CG is found to be a synergistic RMA for β -lactam antibiotics against MRSA. It should be further used in clinical and pre-clinical studies for reversal of β -lactam resistance.

Conclusion

The present study shows that Catechin Gallate can potentiate the activity of β -lactam antibiotics against MRSA.

1. It is the first study of Catechin Gallate as RMA of β -lactam antibiotics against MRSA.
2. This study is based on both computational as well as experimental results, which holds promising results for pre-clinical studies.
3. Catechin Gallate (7.8 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ conc.) has shown synergistic effect with Oxacillin (62.5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ conc.) and Penicillin (2000 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ conc.) in NCTC 6571; while it was (31.25 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) with (62.5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ conc.) of Oxacillin in MTCC 737 but same conc. Of Catechin Gallate (i.e. 7.8 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) has shown synergy with (125 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ conc.) of Oxacillin in MTCC 96.
4. Among the Catechin isomers, Catechin Gallate is the best ligand molecule, which can modulate the function of fem factors by inhibiting the function of *FemXAB* proteins.

Bibliography

- 1) Andrews J. M. (2001): Determination of minimum inhibitory concentrations. *J. Antimicrob. Chemother.*, 48 (S1): 5- 16.
- 2) Arrecubieta C. and Lowy F. D. (2006): *Staphylococcus aureus*–eukaryotic cell interactions. In: Fischetti VA, Novick RP, Ferretti JJ, Portnoy DA, Rood JI, eds. Gram-positive pathogens. 2nd ed. Washington, DC: ASM Press, 517–525.
- 3) Assis L. M., Nedeljković M., and Dessen A. (2017): New strategies for targeting and treatment of multi-drug resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Drug Resistance Updates*, 31: 1-14.
- 4) Australian Group on Antimicrobial Resistance (AGAR). (2014): *Enterobacteriaceae Sepsis Outcome Programme, 2013 Antimicrobial Susceptibility Report*. Perth. 2013. *Staphylococcus aureus Sepsis Outcome Programme (ASSOP), Annual Report 2013*. Perth.
- 5) Baba T., Takeuchi F., Kuroda M., Yuzawa H., Aoki K. I., Oguchi A., Nagai Y., Iwama N., Asano K., Naimi T. and Kuroda H. (2002): Genome and virulence determinants of high virulence community-acquired MRSA. *The Lancet*, 359(9320): 1819-1827.
- 6) Bajaksouzian S., Visalli M. A., Jacobs M. R. and Appelbaum P. C. (1997): Activities of levofloxacin, ofloxacin, and ciprofloxacin, alone and in combination with amikacin, against acinetobacters as determined by checkerboard and time-kill studies. *Antimicrob. Agents Chemother.* 41: 1073–1076.
- 7) Bal A. M., David M. Z., Garau J., Gottlieb T., Mazzei T., Scaglione F., Tattevin P. and Gould I. M. (2017): Future trends in the treatment of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) infection: An in-depth review of newer antibiotics active against an enduring pathogen. *Journal of Global Antimicrobial Resistance*.

Appendix

- 8) Barry A. L., Craig W. A., Nadler H., Reller L. B., Sanders C. C. and Swenson J. M. (1999): Methods for determining bactericidal activity of antimicrobial agents; approved guideline. *NCCLS document M26-A.19* (18).
- 9) Behm C. L. G., Yin H. Q., Liu S., Heggors J. P., Langford R. E., Olson H. E., Hart D. A. and Burell R. (2005): Comparison of *in vitro* disc diffusion and time kill assays for evaluation of the antimicrobial wound dressing efficacy. *Wound Repair Regen.*, 13 (4): 412- 421.
- 10) Benson T. E., Prince D. B., Mutchler V. T., Curry K. A., Ho A. M. and Sarver R. W., Hagadorn J. C., Choi G. H. and Garlick R. L. (2002): X-ray crystal structure of *Staphylococcus aureus* FemA. *Structure*, 10(8): 1107-1115.
- 11) Berger-Bächi B. (1994): Expression of resistance to methicillin. *Trends in microbiology*, 2(10): 389-393.
- 12) Berger-Bächi B., and Tschierske M. (1998): Role of fem factors in methicillin resistance. *Drug Resistance Updates*, 1(5): 325-335.
- 13) Berman H. M., Westbrook J., Feng Z., Gilliland G., Bhat T. N., Weissig H., Shindyalov I. N. and Bourne P. E. (2000): The protein data bank. *Nucleic acids research*, 28(1): 235-242.
- 14) Bern M., Beniston R., and Mesnage S. (2017): Towards an automated analysis of bacterial peptidoglycan structure. *Analytical and bioanalytical chemistry*, 409(2): 551-560.
- 15) Bhakdi S. and Trantum-Jensen J. (1991): Alpha-toxin of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Microbiological reviews*, 55(4): 733-751.
- 16) Binkowski T. A., Naghibzadeh S. and Liang J. (2003): CASTp: computed atlas of surface topography of proteins. *Nucleic acids research*, 31(13): 3352-3355.
- 17) Bolton E. E., Wang Y., Thiessen P. A. and Bryant S. H. (2008): PubChem: integrated platform of small molecules and biological activities. *Annual reports in computational chemistry*, 4: 217-241.

Appendix

- 18) Braoios A., Fluminhan A. and Pizzolitto A. C. (2009): Multiplex PCR use for *Staphylococcus aureus* identification and Oxacillin and mupirocin resistance evaluation. *Revista de Ciências Farmacêuticas Básica e Aplicada*, 30(3): 303-307.
- 19) Byarugaba D. K. (2010): Mechanisms of antimicrobial resistance. In *Antimicrobial Resistance in Developing Countries* (pp. 15-26). Springer New York.
- 20) Cai Z., Lee F. S. C., Wang X. R. and Yu W. J. (2002): A capsule review of recent studies on the application of mass spectrometry in the analysis of chinese medicinal herbs. *J. Mass Spectrom*, 37: 1013- 1024
- 21) Carson C. F., Hammer K. A. and Riley T.V. (1995): Broth microdilution method for determining the susceptibility of *Escherichia coli* and *Staphylococcus aureus* to the essential oil of *Melaleuca alternifolia* (tea tree oil). *Microbios.*, 82: 181- 185.
- 22) Center for Disease Dynamics, Economics and Policy (CDDEP). (2015): Resistance Map. Accessed on August 20, 2015. Retrieved from www.cddep.org/projects/resistancemap and www.resistancemap.org
- 23) Chambers H. F. (1997): Methicillin resistance in staphylococci: molecular and biochemical basis and clinical implications. *Clinical microbiology reviews*, 10(4): 781-791.
- 24) Chand S., Luzunzi I., Veal D. A., Williams L. R. and Karuso P. (1994): Rapid screening of the antimicrobial property of extracts and natural products. *J. Antibiot.*, 47 (11): 1295- 1304.
- 25) Chang F. Y., MacDonald B. B., Peacock J. E., Musher D. M., Triplett P. M., Joseph M., Donnell A., Wagener M. M. and Yu V. L. (2003): A prospective multicenter study of *Staphylococcus aureus* bacteremia: incidence of endocarditis, risk factors for mortality, and clinical impact of methicillin resistance. *Medicine (Baltimore)*, 82(5): 322-32.

Appendix

- 26) Climo M. W., Ehlert K. and Archer G.L. (2001): Mechanism and suppression of lysostaphin resistance in Oxacillin- resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Antimicrob. Agents Chemother.*, 45(5): 1431-1437.
- 27) Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) formerly National Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards (NCCLS) (1997): Methods for dilution antimicrobial susceptibility tests for bacteria that grow aerobically. 3rd ed. Approved Standard. Document M7-A4. Natl. Committee Clin. Lab. Stand., Wayne, PA.
- 28) Courtin P., Miranda G., Guillot A., Wessner F., Mézange C., Domakova E., Kulakauskas S. and Chapot-Chartier M.P., 2006. Peptidoglycan structure analysis of *Lactococcus lactis* reveals the presence of an L, D-carboxypeptidase involved in peptidoglycan maturation. *Journal of bacteriology*, 188(14): 5293-5298.
- 29) Cowan M. M. (1999): Plant products as antimicrobial agents. *Clinical microbiology reviews*, 12(4): 564-582.
- 30) Cragg G. M. and Newman D. J. (2013): Natural products: a continuing source of novel drug leads. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA)-General Subjects*, 1830(6): 3670-3695.
- 31) Critchfield J. W., Butera S. T. and Folks T. M. (1996): Inhibition of HIV activation in latently infected cells by flavonoids compounds. *AIDS research and human retroviruses*, 12(1): 39-46.
- 32) Davis A. R., Gohara D. W. and Yap M. N. F. (2014): Sequence selectivity of macrolide-induced translational attenuation. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 111(43): 15379-15384.

Appendix

- 33) De Guitsi M., Pacifico L., Tufi G., Panero A., Boccia A. and Chiesa C. (1999): Phenotypic detection of nosocomial *mecA*- positive coagulase- negative staphylococci from neonates. *J. Antimicrob. Chemother.*, 44: 351- 358.
- 34) De Jonge B. L., and Tomasz A. (1993): Abnormal peptidoglycan produced in a methicillin-resistant strain of *Staphylococcus aureus* grown in the presence of methicillin: functional role for Penicillin-binding protein 2A in cell wall synthesis. *Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy*, 37(2): 342-346.
- 35) De Jonge B. L., Chang Y. S., Gage D. and Tomasz A. (1992): Peptidoglycan composition of a highly methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* strain. The role of Penicillin binding protein 2A. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, 267(16): 11248-11254.
- 36) De Jonge B. L., Chang Y. S., Xu N. and Gage D. (1996): Effect of exogenous glycine on peptidoglycan composition and resistance in a methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* strain. *Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy*, 40(6): 1498-1503.
- 37) Desmarais SM, Tropini C, Miguel A, Cava F, Monds RD, de Pedro MA, et al(2015): High-throughput, highly sensitive analyses of bacterial morphogenesis using ultra performance liquid chromatography. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*. 290(52):31090–100.
- 38) Diep B. A., Gill S. R., Chang R. F., Phan T. H., Chen J. H., Davidson M. G., Lin F., Lin J., Carleton H. A., Mongodin E. F. and Sensabaugh G. F. (2006): Complete genome sequence of USA300, an epidemic clone of community-acquired methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *The Lancet*, 367(9512): 731-739.
- 39) Dinges M. M., Orwin P. M. and Schlievert P. M. (2000): Exotoxins of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Clinical microbiology reviews*, 13(1): 16-34.

Appendix

- 40) Downard K. M. (2007): Francis William Aston: the man behind the mass spectrograph. *European Journal of Mass Spectrometry*, 13(3): 177-190.
- 41) Drwal M. N., Priyanka B., Dunkel M., Wettig M. and Preissner R., (2014): ProTox: A Web Server for the *in Silico* Prediction of Rodent Oral Toxicity. *Nucleic Acids Research*, 42(1). Web Server issue: W53–W58. *PMC*.
- 42) Dukka B. K. (2013): Structure-based Methods for Computational protein Functional Site Prediction. *Computational and structural biotechnology journal*, 8(11): 1-8.
- 43) Dundas J., Ouyang Z., Tseng J., Binkowski A., Turpaz Y. and Liang J. (2006): CASTp: computed atlas of surface topography of proteins with structural and topographical mapping of functionally annotated residues. *Nucleic acids research*, 34(2): W116-W118.
- 44) Duran N., Ozer B., Duran G. G., Onlen Y. and Demir C. (2012): Antibiotic resistance genes and susceptibility patterns in staphylococci. *The Indian journal of medical research*, 135(3): 389.
- 45) Ender M., McCallum N., Adhikari R. and Berger Bagchi B. (2004): Fitness cost of SCC*mec* and methicillin resistance levels in *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Antimicrob. Agents Chemother.*, 48 (6): 2295- 2297.
- 46) Eucast definitive Document E.Def.3.1. (2000): European Committee for Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing: Determination of minimum inhibitory concentrations (MIC's) of antibacterial agents by agar dilution, *Clin. Microbiol. and Infec.* 6(9): 509–515.
- 47) European Antimicrobial Resistance Surveillance Network (EARS- Net). (2014): EARS-Net Report, Quarters 1–4. Dublin.
- 48) European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing. (2003): Determination of minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs) of antibacterial agents by broth microdilution. EUCAST Discussion Document E. Dis 5.1

Appendix

- 49) Foster T. J. (2005): Immune evasion by staphylococci. *Nature Reviews Microbiology*, 3(12): 948-958.
- 50) Foster T. J. (2017): Antibiotic resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus*. Current status and future prospects. *Fems microbiology reviews*, 41(3): 430-449.
- 51) Friesner R. A., Banks J. L., Murphy R. B., Halgren T. A., Klicic J. J., Mainz D. T., Repasky M. P., Knoll E. H., Shelley M., Perry J. K., Shaw D. E., Francis P. and Shenkin P. S., (2004): Glide: A New Approach for Rapid, Accurate Docking and Scoring. 1. Method and Assessment of Docking Accuracy, *J. Med. Chem.*, 47, 1739-1749.
- 52) Froberg M. K., Palavecino E., Dykoski R., Gerding D. N., Peterson L. R. and Johnson S. (2004): *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Clostridium difficile* cause distinct pseudomembranous intestinal diseases. *Clinical infectious diseases*, 39(5): 747-750.
- 53) Gabrielson J., Hart M., Jarelöv A., Kühn I., McKenzie D. and Möllby R. (2002): Evaluation of redox indicators and the use of digital scanners and spectrophotometer for quantification of microbial growth in microplates. *Journal of Microbiological Methods*, 50(1): 63-73.
- 54) Gallucci N., Casero C., Oliva M., Zygadlo J. and Demo M. (2006): Interaction between terpenes and Penicillin on bacterial strains resistant to beta-lactam antibiotics. *Mol Med Chem*, 10(1): 30-32.
- 55) Gangopadhyay A. and Datta A. (2015): Identification of inhibitors against the potential ligandable sites in the active cholera toxin. *Computational biology and chemistry*, 55: 37-48.
- 56) Garcia-Bustos J. F., Chait B. T. and Tomasz A. (1987): Structure of the peptide network of pneumococcal peptidoglycan. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, 262(32): 15400-15405.

Appendix

- 57) Gardete S., Ludovice A. M., Sobral R. G., Filipe S. R., De Lencastre H. and Tomasz A. (2004): Role of murE in the expression of β -lactam antibiotic resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Journal of bacteriology*, 186(6): 1705-1713.
- 58) Gasch T. S. and Stahl M. (2003): Binding Site Characteristics in Structure-based Virtual Screening: Evaluation of Current Docking Tools, *J. Mol. Model.*, 9: 47-57.
- 59) Gelband H., Molly Miller P., Pant S., Gandra S., Levinson J., Barter D., White A. and Laxminarayan R. (2015): The state of the world's antibiotics 2015. *Wound Healing Southern Africa*, 8(2):30-34.
- 60) Gerber F., Krummen M., Potgeter H., Roth A., Siffrin C. and Spöndlin C. (2004): Practical aspects of fast reversed-phase high-performance liquid chromatography using 3 μ m particle packed columns and monolithic columns in pharmaceutical development and production working under current good manufacturing practice. *Journal of Chromatography A*, 1036 (2): 127–133. [doi:10.1016/j.chroma.2004.02.056](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chroma.2004.02.056). [PMID 15146913](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/15146913/)
- 61) Ghersi D. and Sanchez R., (2012): Automated Identification of Binding Sites for Phosphorylated Ligands in Protein Structures. *Proteins*, 80 (10): 2347–2358. *PMC*.
- 62) Gibbons S. (2004): Anti-staphylococcal plant natural products. *Natural Product Reports* 21(2): 263-277.
- 63) Glauner B. (1988): Separation and quantification of muropeptides with high-performance liquid chromatography. *Anal Biochem*, 172: 451–464.
- 64) Glauner B., Holtje J. and Schwarz U. (1988): The composition of the murein of *Escherichia coli*. *J Biol Chem* 263:10088–10095.
- 65) Goerke C. and Wolz C. (2004): Regulatory and genomic plasticity of *Staphylococcus aureus* during persistent colonization and infection. *International journal of medical microbiology*, 294(2), 195-202.

Appendix

- 66) Goodsell D. S. and Olson A.J. (1990): Automated Docking of Substrates to Proteins by Simulated Annealing. *Proteins*, 8: 195-202.
- 67) Gordon R. J. and Lowy F. D. (2008): Pathogenesis of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* infection. *Clinical infectious diseases*, 46(5): 350-359.
- 68) Guilloux L., Schmidtke P. and Tuffery P. (2009): Fpocket: an open source platform for ligand pocket detection. *BMC bioinformatics*, 10(1): 168-178.
- 69) Guner O. F. (2000). Pharmacophore Perception, Development, and use in Drug Design. *La Jolla, Calif: International University Line*. ISBN 0-9636817-6-1.
- 70) Gupta S., Kapoor P., Chaudhary K., Gautam A. and Kumar R. (2013): Open Source Drug Discovery Consortium, *In Silico* Approach for Predicting Toxicity of Peptides and Proteins. *PLoS ONE* 8(9): e73957. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0073957.
- 71) Gustafsson I., Cars O. and Andersson D. I. (2003): Fitness of antibiotic resistant *Staphylococcus epidermidis* assessed by competition on the skin of human volunteers. *J. Antimicrob. Chemother.*, 1-6. DOI: 10.1093/jac/dkg331.
- 72) Hadji-nejad S., Rahbar H. and Mehrgan H. (2010): Synergy between phenothiazines and Oxacillin against clinical isolates of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Tropical Journal of Pharmaceutical Research*, 9(3): 243-249.
- 73) Hamill R. J., Vann J. M. and Proctor R. A. (1986): Phagocytosis of *Staphylococcus aureus* by cultured bovine aortic endothelial cells: model for postadherence events in endovascular infections. *Infection and immunity*, 54(3): 833-836.
- 74) Hamilton-Miller J. M. (1995): Antimicrobial properties of tea (*Camellia sinensis* L.). *Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy*, 39(11): 2375.
- 75) Hassan B., (2012): HPLC Uses and Importance in the Pharmaceutical Analysis and Industrial Field. *Pharmaceut Anal Acta* 3:e133. doi:10.4172/2153-2435.1000e133

Appendix

- 76) Heijenoort J. V. (2001): Formation of the glycan chains in the synthesis of bacterial peptidoglycan. *Glycobiology*, 11(3): 25-36.
- 77) Hernandez M., Ghersi D. and Sanchez R. (2009): SITEHOUND-Web: A Server for Ligand Binding Site Identification in Protein Structures. *Nucleic Acids Research* 37.Web Server issue: W413–W416. *PMC*.
- 78) Heumann D., Barras C., Severin A., Glauser M. P. and Tomasz A. (1994): Gram-positive cell walls stimulate synthesis of tumor necrosis factor alpha and interleukin-6 by human monocytes. *Infection and immunity*, 62(7): 2715-2721.
- 79) Hoofnagle A. N. (2010): Quantitative clinical proteomics by liquid chromatography–tandem mass spectrometry: assessing the platform. *Clinical chemistry*, 56(2): 161-164.
- 80) Hopkins A. L. (2011): Chapter 25: Pharmacological space". In Wermuth CG. *The Practice of Medicinal Chemistry* (3 ed.): Academic Press. 521–527. ISBN 978-0-12-374194-3.
- 81) Hsieh M. H., Chen M. Y., Victor L. Y. and Chow J. W. (1993): Synergy assessed by checkerboard a critical analysis. *Diagnostic microbiology and infectious disease*, 16(4): 343-349.
- 82) Irwin J. J. and Shoichet B. K., (2005): ZINC–A Free Database of Commercially Available Compounds for Virtual Screening. *Journal of chemical information and modeling* 45(1): 177–182. *PMC*.
- 83) Islam M.A., Alam M. M., Uddin M. S., Kobayashi N. and Ahmed M. U. (2013): Detection of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) from animal and human origin in Bangladesh by polymerase chain reaction. *Bangladesh Journal of Veterinary Medicine*, 9(2): 161-166.
- 84) Ito T., Katayama Y., Asada K., Mori N., Tsutsumimoto K., Tiensasitorn C. and Hiramatsu K. (2001): Structural comparison of three types of staphylococcal cassette chromosome mec

- integrated in the chromosome in methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy*, 45(5): 1323-1336.
- 85) Jain A. N., (2003): Surfex: Fully Automatic Flexible Molecular Docking Using a Molecular Similarity-Based Search Engine *J. Med. Chem.*, 46: 499-511.
- 86) Jain S. N., Vishwanatha T., Reena V., Divyashree B. C., Sampath A., Siddhalingeswara K. G., Venugopal N. and Ramesh I. (2011): Antibiotic synergy test: checkerboard method on multi drug resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. *Int Res J Pharm*, 2: 196-198.
- 87) Japoni A., Alborzi A., Rasouli M. and Pourabbas B. (2004): Modified DNA extraction for rapid PCR detection of methicillin-resistant Staphylococci. *Iranian Biomedical Journal*, 8(3): 161-165.
- 88) Jayaram B. Scfbioitd Web Server. Available from <http://www.scfbioitd.res.in/utility/lipinskiFilters.jsp>. [Last accessed on 2013 Jan 01].
- 89) Jensen S. O. and Lyon B. R. (2009): Genetics of antimicrobial resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Future microbiology*, 4(5): 565-582.
- 90) Jones G., Wilett P., Glein R. C., Leach A. R. and Taylor R. (1997) :Development and Validation of Genetic Algorithm and an Empirical Binding Free Energy Function, *J. Mol. Biol.*, 267: 727-748.
- 91) Jorgensen W. L. (2004): The many roles of computation in drug discovery. *Science*. 303(5665): 1813–8. Bibcode: 2004 Sci.303.1813J. doi:10.1126/science.1096361. PMID 15031495
- 92) Kahl B., Herrmann M., Everding A. S., Koch H. G., Becker K., Harms E., Proctor R.A. and Peters G. (1998): Persistent infection with small colony variant strains of *Staphylococcus aureus* in patients with cystic fibrosis. *Journal of Infectious Diseases*, 177(4): 1023-1029.

Appendix

- 93) Kalhor H., Shariati L., Validi M., Tabatabaiefar M. A. and Nafisi M. R. (2012): Comparison of Agar screen and duplex-PCR methods in determination of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) strains isolated from nasal carriage. *African Journal of Microbiology Research*, 6(16): 3722-3726.
- 94) Kampf G., Lecke C., Cimbal A. K., Weist K. and Rüden H. (1999): Evaluation of the BBL Crystal MRSA ID System for detection of Oxacillin resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Journal of clinical pathology*, 52(3): 225-227.
- 95) Kavanagh K. T., Calderon L. E., Saman D. M. and Abusalem S. K. (2014): The use of surveillance and preventative measures for methicillin-resistant staphylococcus aureus infections in surgical patients. *Antimicrobial resistance and infection control*, 3(1): 18-25.
- 96) Kiefer F., Arnold K., Künzli M., Bordoli L. and Schwede T. (2009): The SWISS-MODEL Repository and associated resources. *Nucleic Acids Res*, 37 (Database issue): D387–D392.
- 97) Kim S., Thiessen P. A., Bolton E. E., Chen J., Fu G., Gindulyte A., Han L., He J., He S., Shoemaker B. A., Wang J., Yu B., Zhzng J. and Bryant S. H. (2015): PubChem Substance and Compound databases. *Nucleic Acids Research*, gkv951.
- 98) Kitchen D. B., Decornez H., Furr J. R. and Bajorath J. (2004): Docking and scoring in virtual screening for drug discovery: methods and applications. *Nature reviews Drug discovery*, 3(11): 935-949.
- 99) Kittit T., Boonyonying K. and Sitthisak S. (2011): Prevalence of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* among university students in Thailand. *Southeast Asian Journal of Tropical Medicine and Public Health*, 42(6): 1498-1504.
- 100) Klebe G. (2000): Recent developments in structure-based drug design. *Journal of Molecular Medicine*. 78 (5): 269–81. [doi:10.1007/s001090000084](https://doi.org/10.1007/s001090000084). [PMID 10954199](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/10954199/).

Appendix

- 101) Kobayashi N., Wu H., Kojima K., Taniguchi K., Urasawa S., Uehara N., Omizu Y., Kishi Y., Yagihashi A. and Kurokawa I. (1994): Detection of *mecA*, *femA*, and *femB* genes in clinical strains of staphylococci using polymerase chain reaction. *Epidemiology and Infection*, 113(2): 259-266.
- 102) Kobayashi N., Taniguchi K. and Urasawa S. (1998): Analysis of Diversity of Mutations in the *mecl* Gene and *mecA* Promoter/Operator Region of Methicillin-Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Staphylococcus epidermidis*. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy*, 42(3): 717-720.
- 103) Kohanski M. A., Dwyer D. J. and Collins J. J. (2010): How antibiotics kill bacteria: from targets to networks. *Nature Reviews Microbiology*, 8(6): 423-435. Kolmonen M., Leinonen A., Pelander A. and Ojanperä I. (2007): A general screening method for doping agents in human urine by solid phase extraction and liquid chromatography/time-of-flight mass spectrometry. *Analytica chimica acta*, 585(1): 94-102.
- 104) Kondo Y., Ito T., Ma X. X., Watanabe S., Kreiswirth B. N., Etienne J. and Hiramatsu K. (2007): Combination of multiplex PCRs for staphylococcal cassette chromosome *mec* type assignment: rapid identification system for *mec*, *ccr*, and major differences in junkyard regions. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy*, 51(1): 264-274.
- 105) Krogstad D. J. and Moellering R. C. (1986): Antimicrobial combinations. *Antibiotics in laboratory medicine*, 2: 537-595.
- 106) Kühner D., Stahl M., Demircioglu D. D. and Bertsche U. (2014): From cells to muropeptide structures in 24 h: Peptidoglycan mapping by UPLC-MS. *Scientific reports*, 4:7494.

Appendix

- 107) Kumar S. (2013): Modeling and structural comparison of betaine aldehyde dehydrogenase 2 of fragrant and non-fragrant soybean (*Glycine max*) and rice (*Oryza sativa L.*)(Doctoral dissertation, CCSHAU).
- 108) Kuntz I. D., Blaney J. M., Oatley S. J., Langridge R. and Ferrin T. E. (1982): A geometric approach to macromolecule-ligand interactions. *Journal of Molecular Biology*, 161 (2): 269–288. [doi:10.1016/0022-2836\(82\)90153-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-2836(82)90153-X). [PMID 7154081](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/7154081/).
- 109) Kupiec T. (2004): Quality-control analytical methods: High-performance liquid chromatography. *International journal of pharmaceutical compounding*, 8: 223-227.
- 110) Labischinski H. and Johannsen L. (1999): Cell wall targets in methicillin-resistant staphylococci. *Drug Resistance Updates* 2(5): 319-325.
- 111) Lahlou M., (2013): The success of natural products in drug discovery. *Pharmacol Pharm*, 4(3A):17-31.
- 112) Lang P. T., Brozell S. R., Mukherjee S., Pettersen E. F., Meng E. C., Thomas V., Rizzo R. C., Case D. A., James T. L. and Kuntz I. D., (2009): DOCK 6: Combining techniques to model RNA-small molecule complexes. *RNA*, 15(6): 1219-1230.
- 113) Laskowski R. A. and Swindells M. B. (2011): LigPlot+: Multiple ligand-protein interaction diagrams for drug discovery. *J Chem Inf Model*, 51: 2778-86.
- 114) Laurie A. T. and Jackson R. M. (2005): Q-SiteFinder: an energy-based method for the prediction of protein–ligand binding sites. *Bioinformatics*, 21(9): 1908-1916.
- 115) Laurie R., Alasdair T. and Jackson R. M. (2006): Methods for the prediction of protein-ligand binding sites for structure-based drug design and virtual ligand screening. *Current Protein and Peptide Science*, 7(5): 395-406.
- 116) Lee Y. S., Kang O. H., Choi J. G., Oh Y. C., Keum J. H., Kim S. B., Jeong G. S., Kim Y. C., Shin D. W. and Kwon D. Y. (2010): Synergistic effect of emodin in combination with ampicillin

- or Oxacillin against methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Pharmaceutical biology*, 48(11): 1285-1290.
- 117) Leelananda S. P. and Lindert S., (2016): Computational methods in drug discovery. *Beilstein journal of organic chemistry*, 12: 2694.
- 118) Li X., Xiong Y., Fan X., Zhong Z., Feng P., Tang H. and Zhou T. (2008): A study of the regulating gene of femA from methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* clinical isolates. *Journal of International Medical Research*, 36(3): 420-433.
- 119) Lionta E., Spyrou G., Vassilatis D. K. and Coumia Z., (2014): Structure-Based Virtual Screening for Drug Discovery: Principles, Applications and Recent Advances. *Current Topics in Medicinal Chemistry* 14(16): 1923–1938. *PMC*.
- 120) Lipipun V., Nantawanit N. and Pongsamart S. (2002): Antimicrobial activity (*in vitro*) of polysaccharide gel from durian fruit- hulls. *J. Sci. Technol.*, 24 (1): 31-38.
- 121) Lowy F.D. (1998): *Staphylococcus aureus* infections. *N Engl J Med*, 339: 520-532.
- 122) Ludovice A. M., Wu S. W. and De Lencastre H. (1998): Molecular cloning and DNA sequencing of the *Staphylococcus aureus* UDP-N-acetylmuramyl tripeptide synthetase (murE) gene, essential for the optimal expression of methicillin resistance. *Microbial Drug Resistance*, 4(2): 85-90.
- 123) Mackay M. L., Milne K. and Gould I. M. (2000): Comparison of methods for assessing synergic antibiotic interactions. *International Journal of Antimicrobial Agents*, 15(2): 125-129.
- 124) Madhavan H. N. and Murali S. (2011): Mechanisms of development of antibiotic resistance in bacteria among clinical specimens. *J Clin Biomed Sci*, 1(2): 43.
- 125) Maidhof H., Reinicke B., Blümel P., Berger-Bächi B. and Labischinski H. (1991): femA, which encodes a factor essential for expression of methicillin resistance, affects glycine

Appendix

- content of peptidoglycan in methicillin-resistant and methicillin-susceptible *Staphylococcus aureus* strains. *Journal of bacteriology*, 173(11): 3507-3513.
- 126) Mallorquí-Fernández G., Marrero A., García-Piquè S., García-Castellanos R. and Gomis-Rüth F. X. (2004): Staphylococcal methicillin resistance: fine focus on folds and functions. *FEMS microbiology letters*, 235(1): 1-8.
- 127) Mandal S., Mandal M. D. and Pal N. K. (2004): Evaluation of combination effect of ciprofloxacin and cefazolin against *Salmonella enteric* serovar typhi isolates by in vitro methods. *Calicut Med J*, 2(2): e2.
- 128) Mandal S., Moudgil M. and Mandal S. K., (2009): Rational drug design. *Eur J Pharmacol*, 625:90–100.
- 129) Mann C. M. and Markham J. L. (1998): A new method for determining the minimum inhibitory concentration of essential oils. *J. Appl. Microbiol.*, 84: 538- 544.
- 130) Markiewicz Z., Glauner B. and Schwarz U. (1983): Murein structure and lack of DD- and LD-carboxypeptidase activities in *Caulobacter crescentus*. *J Bacteriol* 156: 649–655.
- 131) Mathews A. A., Thomas M., Appalaraju B. and Jayalakshmi J. (2010): Evaluation and comparison of tests to detect methicillin resistant *S. aureus*. *Indian Journal of Pathology and Microbiology*, 53(1): 79-82.
- 132) Matsumoto Y., Kaihatsu K., Nishino K., Ogawa M., Kato N. and Yamaguchi A. (2012): Antibacterial and antifungal activities of new acylated derivatives of epigallocatechin gallate. *Frontiers in microbiology*, 3: 53.
- 133) May J., Chan C. H., King A., Williams L. and French G. L. (2000): Time kill studies of tea tree oils on clinical isolates. *J. Antimicrob. Chemother.*, 45: 639- 643.

Appendix

- 134) Mehrotra M., Wang G. and Johnson W. M. (2000): Multiplex PCR for Detection of Genes for *Staphylococcus aureus* Enterotoxins, Exfoliative Toxins, Toxic Shock Syndrome Toxin 1, and Methicillin Resistance. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology*, 38(3): 1032-1035.
- 135) Miles A. A., Misra S. S. and Irwin J. O. (1938): The estimation of the bactericidal power of the blood. *Journal of Hygiene*, 38(06): 732-749.
- 136) Molton J. S., Tambyah P. A., Ang B. S., Ling M. L. and Fisher D. A. (2013): The global spread of healthcare-associated multidrug-resistant bacteria: a perspective from Asia. *Clinical infectious diseases*, 56(9): 1310-1318.
- 137) Morris G. M., Huey R., Lindstrom W., Sanner M. F., Belew R. K., Goodsell D. S. and Olson A. J. (2009): Autodock4 and AutoDockTools4: automated docking with selective receptor flexibility. *J. Computational Chemistry*, 16: 2785-2791.
- 138) Murakami K., Minamide W., Wada K., Nakamura E., Teraoka H. and Watanabe S. (1991): Identification of methicillin-resistant strains of staphylococci by polymerase chain reaction. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology*, 29(10): 2240-2244.
- 139) Naber C. K. (2009): Staphylococcus aureus bacteremia: epidemiology, pathophysiology, and management strategies. *Clinical infectious diseases*, 48(4): 231-237.
- 140) Newman D. J. and Cragg G. M., (2016): Natural products as sources of new drugs from 1981 to 2014. *J. Nat. Prod*, 79(3): 629-661.
- 141) Nikolaidis I., Favini-Stabile S. and Dessen A. (2014): Resistance to antibiotics targeted to the bacterial cell wall. *Protein science*, 23(3): 243-259.
- 142) Ogawa S. K., Yurberg E. R., Hatcher V. B., Levitt M. A. and Lowy F. D. (1985): Bacterial adherence to human endothelial cells in vitro. *Infection and immunity*, 50(1): 218-224.

Appendix

- 143) Okemo P. O., Mwatha W. E., Chhabra S. C. and Fabry W. (2001): The kill kinetics of *Azadirachta indica* A. Juss (Meliaceae) extracts on *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Escherichia coli*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Candida albicans*. *AJST*, 2(2): 113- 118.
- 144) Orhan G., Bayram A., Zer Y. and Balci I., (2005): Synergy tests by E test and checkerboard methods of antimicrobial combinations against *Brucella melitensis*. *Journal of clinical microbiology*, 43(1): 140-143.
- 145) O'Riordan K. and Lee J. C. (2004): *Staphylococcus aureus* capsular polysaccharides. *Clinical microbiology reviews*, 17(1): 218-234.
- 146) Osborne M. S., Rothstein D. M., Farquhar R. and Murphy C. K. (2006): In vitro time-kill activities of rifalazil, alone and in combination with vancomycin, against logarithmic and stationary cultures of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *The Journal of antibiotics*, 59(2): 80-85.
- 147) Packiam M., Weinrick B., Jacobs W. R. and Maurelli, A. T. (2015): Structural characterization of mucopeptides from *Chlamydia trachomatis* peptidoglycan by mass spectrometry resolves "chlamydial anomaly". *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 112(37): 11660-11665.
- 148) Pagadala N. S., Syed K. and Tuszynski J. (2017): Software for molecular docking: a review. *Biophysical reviews*, 1-12.
- 149) Pandey A. K. and Kumar S. (2013): Perspective on plant products as antimicrobial agents: a review. *Pharmacologia*, 4: 469-480.
- 150) Paule S. M., Pasquariello A. C., Thomson R. B., Kaul K. L. and Peterson L. R. (2005): Real-time PCR can rapidly detect methicillin-susceptible and methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* directly from positive blood culture bottles. *American journal of clinical pathology*, 124(3): 404-407.

Appendix

- 151) Peacock S. J. and Paterson G. K. (2015): Mechanisms of Methicillin Resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Annual Review of Biochemistry*, 84: 577-601.
- 152) Pelander A., Ojanperä I., Laks S., Rasanen I. and Vuori E. (2003): Toxicological screening with formula-based metabolite identification by liquid chromatography/time-of-flight mass spectrometry. *Analytical chemistry*, 75(21): 5710-5718.
- 153) Pelisser M. R., Klein C. S., Ascoli K. R., Zotti T. R. and Arisi A. C. M. (2009): Occurrence of *Staphylococcus aureus* and multiplex pcr detection of classic enterotoxin genes in cheese and meat products. *Brazilian Journal of Microbiology*, 40(1): 145-148.
- 154) Petersen P. J., Labthavikul P., Jones C. H. and Bradford P. A. (2006): In vitro antibacterial activities of tigecycline in combination with other antimicrobial agents determined by checkerboard and time-kill kinetic analysis. *Journal of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy*, 57(3): 573-576.
- 155) Pemmaraju S. C., Pruthi P. A., Prasad R., and Pruthi V. (2013): *Candida albicans* biofilm inhibition by synergistic action of terpenes and fluconazole. *Indian Journal of Experimental Biology*. 51(11):1032-7.
- 156) Pieper U., Eswar N., Webb B. M., Eramian D., Kelly L., Barkan D. T., Carter H., Mankoo P., Karchin R., Marti-Renom M. A., et al. (2009): MODBASE, a database of annotated comparative protein structure models and associated resources. *Nucleic Acids Res*, 37: (Database issue): D347–D354.
- 157) Prévost G., Couppié P. and Monteil H. (2003): Staphylococcal epidermolysins. *Current opinion in infectious diseases*, 16(2): 71-76.
- 158) Proctor R. A. and Peters G. (1998): Small colony variants in staphylococcal infections: diagnostic and therapeutic implications. *Clinical infectious diseases*, 27(3): 419-422.

Appendix

- 159) Proctor R. A., Van Langevelde P., Kristjansson M., Maslow J. N. and Arbeit R. D. (1995): Persistent and relapsing infections associated with small-colony variants of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Clinical infectious diseases*, 20(1): 95-102.
- 160) Projan S. J. and Novick R. P. (1997): The molecular basis of pathogenicity. *The staphylococci in human disease*. Churchill Livingstone, New York, NY, 55-81.
- 161) Public Health Agency of Canada. (2015): Canadian Antimicrobial Resistance Surveillance System Report 2015. Ottawa.
- 162) Pugliese G. and Favero M. S. (2002): Biofilms Survival Mechanisms of Clinically Relevant Microorganisms. *Infection Control*, 23(6): 352-352.
- 163) Rallapalli S., Verghese S. and Verma R. S. (2008): Validation of multiplex PCR strategy for simultaneous detection and identification of methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Indian journal of medical microbiology*, 26(4):361-364.
- 164) Rarey M., Kramer B. and Lengauer T. (1997): Multiple Automatic Base Selection: Protein-ligand Docking Based on Incremental Construction without Manual Intervention, *J. Comput. Aided Mol. Des.*, 11: 369-384.
- 165) Ray P., Gautam V. and Singh R. (2011): Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) in developing and developed countries: implications and solutions. In *Regional Health Forum* 15(1): 75.
- 166) Ray P., Manchanda V., Bajaj J., Chitnis D. S., Gautam V., Goswami P., Gupta V., Harish B. N., Kagal A., Kapil A. and Rao R. (2013): Methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) in India: Prevalence & susceptibility pattern. *The Indian journal of medical research*, 137(2): 363.
- 167) Reed P., Atilano M. L., Alves R., Hoiczuk E., Sher X., Reichmann N. T., Pereira P. M., Roemer T., Filipe S. R., Pereira-Leal J. B. and Ligoxygakis P. (2015): *Staphylococcus aureus*

Appendix

- survives with a minimal peptidoglycan synthesis machine but sacrifices virulence and antibiotic resistance. *Plos pathogens*, 11(5): e1004891.
- 168) Reynolds P. E. and Brown D. F. (1985): Penicillin-binding proteins of β -lactam-resistant strains of *Staphylococcus aureus*: effect of growth conditions. *FEBS letters*, 192(1): 28-32.
- 169) Rohrer S., Ehlert K., Tschierske M., Labischinski H. and Berger-Bächi B. (1999): The essential *Staphylococcus aureus* gene *fmhB* is involved in the first step of peptidoglycan pentaglycine interpeptide formation. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 96(16): 9351-9356.
- 170) Rostamzad A. and Rostamneia N. (2016): Prevalence of the Panton-Valentine Leukocidin Gene in Clinical Isolates of *Staphylococcus aureus* Isolated From Hospitals the Ilam Province of Iran. *Avicenna Journal of Clinical Microbiology and Infection*, 3(1).
- 171) Ruppé E., Barbier F., Mesli Y., Maiga A., Cojocar R., Benkhalfat M., Benchouk S., Hassaine H., Maiga I., Diallo A., Koumare A. K., Ouattara K., Soumare S., Dufourcq J. B., Nareth C., Sarthou J. L., Andremont A. and Ruimy R. (2009): Diversity of staphylococcal cassette chromosome *mec* structures in methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus epidermidis* and *Staphylococcus haemolyticus* strains among outpatients from four countries. *Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy*, 53(2): 442-449.
- 172) Saad R., Asyikin N., Khan J., Aldahlli S., Sultan S., Abdulhamid J., Yusuf E. and Asmani F. (2014): Determination of minimum inhibitory concentration utilizing microtitre plate bioassay for three Malaysian Herbal Medicines. *International Journal of Applied Pharmaceutical Sciences and Biomedical Sciences*, 3(1):280-290.
- 173) Saiful A. J., Mastura M., Zarizal S., Mazurah M. I., Shuhaimi M. and Ali A. M. (2006): Detection of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* using *mecA/nuc* genes and

Appendix

- antibiotic susceptibility profile of Malaysian clinical isolates. *World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 22(12): 1289-1294.
- 174) Sakoulas G., Rose W., Berti A., Olson J., Mungia J., Nonejuie P., Sakoulas E., Rybak M. J., Pogliano J. and Nizet V. (2016): Classical β -lactamase Inhibitors Potentiate the Activity of Daptomycin against Methicillin-Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* and Colistin Against *Acinetobacter baumannii*. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy*, AAC-01745.
- 175) Sander T. (2014): Actelion Pharmaceuticals Ltd., Gewerbestrasse 16, 4123 Allschwil, Switzerland. Organic Chemistry Portal. Available from: <http://www.organic-chemistry.Org/prog/peo/>. [Last accessed on 2013 Jan 01].
- 176) Sarker S. D., Nahar L. and Kumarasamy Y. (2007): Microtitre plate-based antibacterial assay incorporating resazurin as an indicator of cell growth, and its application in the in vitro antibacterial screening of phytochemicals. *Methods*, 42(4): 321-324.
- 177) Sato M., Tanaka H., Yamaguchi R., Kato K. and Etoh H. (2004): Synergistic effects of mupirocin and an isoflavanone isolated from *Erythrina variegata* on growth and recovery of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Int J Antimicrob Agents*, 24: 241–246.
- 178) Saxena S. and Gomber C. (2008): Comparative in vitro antimicrobial procedural efficacy for susceptibility of *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Escherichia coli* and *Pseudomonas* species to chloramphenicol, ciprofloxacin and cefaclor. *British journal of biomedical science*, 65(4): 178-183.
- 179) Saxena S. and Gomber C. (2010): Surmounting antimicrobial resistance in the millennium superbug: *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Open Medicine*, 5(1): 12-29.

Appendix

- 180) Schames J. R., Henschman R. H., Siegel J. S., Sotriffer C. A., Ni H. and McCammon J. A. (2004): Discovery of a novel binding trench in HIV integrase. *J Med Chem*, 47(8): 1879-81.
- 181) Schelz Z., Molnar J. and Hohmann J. (2006): Antimicrobial and antiplasmid activities of essential oils. *Fitoterapia*, 77(4): 279-285.
- 182) Schleifer K. H. and Kandler O. (1972): Peptidoglycan types of bacterial cell walls and their taxonomic implications. *Bacteriological reviews*, 36(4): 407.
- 183) Schmidtke P., Guilloux L., Maupetit J. and Tufféry P. (2010): Fpocket: online tools for protein ensemble pocket detection and tracking. *Nucleic acids research*, 38(2): W582-W589.
- 184) Schneider G., Fechner U. (Aug 2005): Computer-based de novo design of drug-like molecules. *Nature Reviews. Drug Discovery*. 4 (8): 649–663.
[doi:10.1038/nrd1799](https://doi.org/10.1038/nrd1799). PMID 16056391.
- 185) Schneider T., Gries K., Josten M., Wiedemann I., Pelzer S., Labischinski H. and Sahl H. G. (2009): The lipopeptide antibiotic friulimicin B inhibits cell wall biosynthesis through complex formation with bactoprenol phosphate. *Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy*, 53(4): 1610-1618.
- 186) Schwalbe R., Steele-Moore L. and Goodwin A. C. (Eds.). (2007): *Antimicrobial susceptibility testing protocols*. Crc Press.
- 187) Scott R. P. (2003): Principles and practice of chromatography. *Chrom-Ed Book Series*
- 188) Sharif S., Kim S. J., Labischinski H. and Schaefer J. (2009): Characterization of peptidoglycan in fem-deletion mutants of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* by solid-state NMR. *Biochemistry*, 48(14): 3100-3108.

Appendix

- 189) Shiota S., Shimizu M., Mizushima T., Ito H., Hatano T., Yoshida T., Tsuchiya T. (1999): Marked reduction in the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of beta-lactams in methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* produced by epicatechin gallate, an ingredient of green tea (*Camellia sinensis*). *Biol Pharm Bull*, 22:1388–1390. [PubMed: 10746177]
- 190) Shukla S. K., Ramaswamy S. V., Conradt J., Stemper M. E., Reich R., Reed K. D. and Graviss E. A. (2004): Novel polymorphisms in mec genes and a new mec complex type in methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates obtained in rural Wisconsin. *Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy*, 48(8): 3080-3085.
- 191) Sibanda T., and Okoh A. I. (2008): In vitro evaluation of the interactions between acetone extracts of *Garcinia kola* seeds and some antibiotics. *African Journal of Biotechnology*, 7(11): 1672-1678.
- 192) Siddiqui A. A., Iram F., Siddiqui S. and Sahu K., (2014): Role of natural products in drug discovery process. *International journal of drug development and research*.
- 193) Silva F., Lourenço O., Queiroz J. A. and Domingues F.C., (2011): Bacteriostatic versus bactericidal activity of ciprofloxacin in *Escherichia coli* assessed by flow cytometry using a novel far-red dye. *Journal of Antibiotics*, 64(4): 321.
- 194) Singhal D., and Saxena S. (2015): Screening and toxicity analysis of catechin isomers against FemA protein. *Indian journal of pharmaceutical sciences*, 77(6): 758. (PMCID: PMC4778237).
- 195) Singhal D. and Saxena, S., (2017): Catechin gallate a promising resistance modifying candidate to potentiate β -lactam antibiotics to overcome resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Current Medicine Research and Practice*, 7:224–228.

Appendix

- 196) Sliwoski G., Kothiwale S., Meiler J. and Lowe E. W. (2014): Computational methods in drug discovery. *Pharmacological reviews*, 66(1): 334-395.
- 197) Soe W. M., Tzer Pin Lin R., Lim C. S., Sakharkar K. R. and Sakharkar M. K. (2010): In vitro drug interactions of gallates with antibiotics in *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Front. Biosci. (Elite edition)*, 2: 668-672.
- 198) Sommers H. M. (1980): Drug susceptibility testing *in vitro*: monitoring of antimicrobial therapy.
- 199) Sopirala M. M., Mangino J. E., Gebreyes W. A., Biller B., Bannerman T., Balada-Llasat J. M. and Pancholi P. (2010): Synergy testing by Etest, microdilution checkerboard, and time-kill methods for pan-drug-resistant *Acinetobacter baumannii*. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy*, 54(11): 4678-4683.
- 200) Sousa S. F., Fernandes P. A. and Ramos M. J. (2006): Protein-Ligand Docking: Current Status and Future Challenges *Proteins*, 65: 15-26.
- 201) Sousa S. F., Ribeiro A. J. M., Coimbra J. T. S., Neves R. P. P., Martins S. A., Moorthy N. S. H. N., Fernandes P. A. and Ramos M. J., (2013): Protein-ligand docking in the new millennium—a retrospective of 10 years in the field. *Current medicinal chemistry*, 20(18): 2296-2314.
- 202) Sparkman O. D. (2000): Mass spectrometry desk reference. *Journal of the American Society for Mass Spectrometry*, 11(12): 1144.
- 203) Stapleton P. D. and Taylor P. W. (2002): Methicillin resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus*: mechanisms and modulation. *Science progress*, 85(1): 57-72.
- 204) Stapleton P.D., Shah S., Anderson J. C., Hara Y., Hamilton-Miller J. M. T., Taylor P. W. (2004): Modulation of beta lactam resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus* by catechins and gallates. *Int J Antimicrob Agents.*, 23: 462–467. [PubMed: 15120724]

Appendix

- 205) Stapleton P. D., Shah S., Hara Y. and Taylor P. W. (2006): Potentiation of catechin gallate-mediated sensitization of *Staphylococcus aureus* to Oxacillin by nongalloylated catechins. *Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy*, 50(2): 752-755.
- 206) Stapleton P. D., Gettert J. and Taylor P. W. (2006): Epicatechin gallate, a component of green tea, reduces halotolerance in *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Int. J. of Food Micr.*, 111: 276-279.
- 207) Stapleton P. D., Shah S., Ehlert K., Hara Y. and Taylor P. W., (2007): The β -lactam-resistance modifier (-)-epicatechin gallate alters the architecture of the cell wall of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Microbiology*, 153(7):2093-2103.
- 208) Stefani S., Chung D. R., Lindsay J. A., Friedrich A. W., Kearns A. M., Westh H. and MacKenzie F. M. (2012): Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA): global epidemiology and harmonization of typing methods. *International journal of antimicrobial agents*, 39(4): 273-282.
- 209) Sundström M., Pelander A., Angerer V., Hutter M., Kneisel S. and Ojanperä I. (2013): A high-sensitivity ultra-high performance liquid chromatography/high-resolution time-of-flight mass spectrometry (UHPLC-HR-TOFMS) method for screening synthetic cannabinoids and other drugs of abuse in urine. *Analytical and bioanalytical chemistry*, 405(26): 8463-8474.
- 210) Suzuki E., Kuwahara-Arai K., Richardson J. F. and Hiramatsu K. (1993): Distribution of *mec* regulator genes in methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus* clinical strains. *Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy*, 37(6): 1219-1226.
- 211) Taylor P. W., Miller J. M. T. H. and Stapleton P. D., (2005): Antimicrobial properties of green tea catechins. *Food Sci. Technol Bull.*, 2: 71-81.

Appendix

- 212) Tenson T., Lovmar M. and Ehrenberg M. (2003): The mechanism of action of macrolides, lincosamides and streptogramin B reveals the nascent peptide exit path in the ribosome. *Journal of molecular biology*, 330(5): 1005-1014.
- 213) Timmerman C. P., Mattsson E., Martinez-Martinez L., De Graaf L., Van Strijp J. A., Verbrugh H. A., Verhoef J. and Flier A. (1993): Induction of release of tumor necrosis factor from human monocytes by staphylococci and staphylococcal peptidoglycans. *Infection and immunity*, 61(10): 4167-4172.
- 214) Ton-That H., Labischinski H., Berger-Bächi B. and Schneewind O. (1998): Anchor structure of staphylococcal surface proteins III. Role of the femA, femB, and femX factors in anchoring surface proteins to the bacterial cell wall. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, 273(44): 29143-29149.
- 215) Tropsha A (2010): QSAR in Drug Discovery. In Reynolds CH, Merz KM, Ringe D. Drug Design: Structure- and Ligand-Based Approaches (1 ed.). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press. pp. 151–164. ISBN 978-0521887236.
- 216) Trott O. and Olson A. J. (2010): AutoDock Vina: Improving the speed and accuracy of docking with a new scoring function, efficient optimization, and multithreading. *J Comput Chem*, 31: 455-461.
- 217) Tschierske M., Ehlert K., Strandén A. M. and Berger-Bächi B. (1997): Lif, the lysostaphin immunity factor, complements FemB in staphylococcal peptidoglycan interpeptide bridge formation. *FEMS microbiology letters*, 153(2): 261-264.
- 218) Typas A., Banzhaf M., Gross C. A. and Vollmer W. (2012): From the regulation of peptidoglycan synthesis to bacterial growth and morphology. *Nature Reviews Microbiology*, 10(2): 123-136.

Appendix

- 219) Tzianabos A. O., Wang J. Y. and Lee J. C. (2001): Structural rationale for the modulation of abscess formation by *Staphylococcus aureus* capsular polysaccharides. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 98(16): 9365-9370.
- 220) Vadhana P., Singh B. R., Bharadwaj M. and Singh S. V. (2015): Emergence of herbal antimicrobial drug resistance in clinical bacterial isolates. *Pharm Anal Acta*, 6(10):434.
- 221) Van De Waterbeemd, H. and Gifford, E. (2003): ADMET *in silico* modelling: towards prediction paradise? *Nature reviews Drug discovery*, 2(3): 192-204.
- 222) Vannuffel P., Heusterspreute M., Bouyer M., Vandercam B., Philippe M. and Gala J. L. (1999): Molecular characterization of femA from *Staphylococcus hominis* and *Staphylococcus saprophyticus*, and femA-based discrimination of staphylococcal species. *Research in microbiology*, 150(2): 129-141.
- 223) Venkatachalam C. M., Jiang X., Oldfield T. and Waldan M. (2003): LigandFit: A Novel Method for the Shape-directed Rapid Docking of Ligands to Protein Active Sites, *J. Mol. Graphics Modell.*, 21, 289-307.
- 224) Wandzik I. (2006): Current molecular docking tools and comparisons thereof. *MATCH*, 55(2): 271-278.
- 225) Wang R., Gao Y., Lai L. (2000): LigBuilder: A Multi-Purpose Program for Structure-Based Drug Design. *Journal of Molecular Modeling*. 6 (7-8): 498-516.
- 226) Wang R., Braughton K. R., Kretschmer D., Bach T. H. L., Queck, S. Y., Li M., Kennedy A. D., Dorward D. W., Klebanoff S. J., Peschel A. and DeLeo F. R., (2007): Identification of novel cytolytic peptides as key virulence determinants for community-associated MRSA. *Nature medicine*, 13(12):1510-1514.
- 227) Waters E. M., Rudkin J. K., Coughlan S., Clair G. C., Adkins J. N., Gore S., Xia G., Black N. S., Downing T., O'Neill E. and Kadioglu A. (2017): Redeploying β -lactam antibiotics as a

Appendix

- novel antivirulence strategy for the treatment of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* infections. *The Journal of infectious diseases*, 215(1): 80-87.
- 228) Weidenmaier C. Kokai-Kun J. F., Kristian S. A., Chanturiya T., Kalbacher H., Gross M., Nicholson G., Neumeister B., Mond J. J. and Peschel A. (2004): Role of teichoic acids in *Staphylococcus aureus* nasal colonization, a major risk factor in nosocomial infections. *Nature Medicine* 10(3): 243–245.
- 229) White R. L., Burgess D. S., Manduru M. and Bosso J. A. (1996): Comparison of three different in vitro methods of detecting synergy: time-kill, checkerboard, and E test. *Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy*, 40(8):1914-1918.
- 230) World Health Organization. Antimicrobial resistance: Global report on surveillance. Geneva: Switzerland; 2014.
- 231) Wu C. P., Ohnuma S. and V Ambudkar S. (2011): Discovering natural product modulators to overcome multidrug resistance in cancer chemotherapy. *Current pharmaceutical biotechnology*, 12(4):609-620.
- 232) Youmans G. P., Paterson P. Y. and Sommers H. M. (1980). *Biologic and clinical basis of infectious diseases*. WB S. aureus nders Co..
- 233) Young D. C. (2009): *Computational drug design: a guide for computational and medicinal chemists*. John Wiley & Sons.
- 234) Zago C. E., Silva S., Sanitá P. V., Barbugli P. A., Dias C. M. I., Lordello V. B. and Vergani C. E. (2015): Dynamics of biofilm formation and the interaction between *Candida albicans* and methicillin-susceptible (MSSA) and-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA). *PLoS One*, 10(4): e0123206.
- 235) Zhao W.H., Hu Z. Q., Okubo S., Hara Y. and Shimamura T. (2006): Mechanism of synergy between epigallocatechin gallate and β - lactam antibiotics against methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy*, 45(6): 1737-1742.

Fig4.2.Config File

```
receptor = 1LRZ.pdbqt
ligand = ligand.pdbqt
scenter_x = 35.829
center_y = 63.41
center_z = 94.89
size_x = 76
size_y = 102
size_z = 20
num_modes = 9
```

Fig.4.3. INSPH File

```
Receptor.ms
R
X
0.0
4.0
1.4
Receptors.sph
```

Fig.4.4. OUTSPH File

```
Cluster 1 having 111 spheres
ATOM 186 C SPH 186 33.223 56.485 86.932 TER
ATOM 194 C SPH 194 32.620 54.643 86.775 TER
ATOM 269 C SPH 269 33.134 47.900 84.688 TER
ATOM 289 C SPH 289 35.356 51.919 74.766 TER
ATOM 291 C SPH 291 36.340 52.947 77.823 TER
ATOM 305 C SPH 305 30.283 47.287 83.534 TER
ATOM 463 C SPH 463 28.234 49.420 83.930 TER
ATOM 476 C SPH 476 28.196 46.107 82.934 TER
ATOM 489 C SPH 489 29.896 40.802 81.511 TER
ATOM 538 C SPH 538 26.713 44.529 82.269 TER
ATOM 542 C SPH 542 32.463 41.127 82.029 TER
ATOM 544 C SPH 544 31.730 46.115 82.788 TER
ATOM 545 C SPH 545 30.980 40.964 85.816 TER
ATOM 565 C SPH 565 30.333 47.424 83.549 TER
ATOM 567 C SPH 567 30.955 51.538 86.031 TER
ATOM 857 C SPH 857 33.057 39.453 87.456 TER
ATOM 971 C SPH 971 36.761 61.898 115.243 TER
ATOM 975 C SPH 975 41.879 58.580 112.690 TER
ATOM 978 C SPH 978 45.664 54.204 109.622 TER
ATOM 992 C SPH 992 48.021 56.091 111.010 TER
ATOM 1221 C SPH 1221 39.165 49.303 92.839 TER
ATOM 1227 C SPH 1227 40.230 54.625 91.557 TER
ATOM 1234 C SPH 1234 39.280 51.396 88.728 TER
```

Appendix

ATOM	1250	C	SPH	1250	34.859	41.035	90.931	TER
ATOM	1260	C	SPH	1260	32.889	39.312	91.035	TER
ATOM	1268	C	SPH	1268	36.753	53.651	91.271	TER
ATOM	1269	C	SPH	1269	33.894	50.737	84.907	TER
ATOM	1276	C	SPH	1276	38.239	53.776	91.743	TER
ATOM	1332	C	SPH	1332	33.978	64.963	108.208	TER
ATOM	1336	C	SPH	1336	33.022	65.368	110.658	TER
ATOM	1373	C	SPH	1373	32.499	64.299	112.310	TER
ATOM	1430	C	SPH	1430	42.119	66.806	113.565	TER
ATOM	1447	C	SPH	1447	45.627	64.517	114.964	TER
ATOM	1448	C	SPH	1448	49.499	67.104	110.342	TER
ATOM	1449	C	SPH	1449	49.108	63.316	112.302	TER
ATOM	1459	C	SPH	1459	49.573	66.750	109.935	TER
ATOM	1472	C	SPH	1472	52.273	64.333	101.153	TER
ATOM	1473	C	SPH	1473	50.709	63.301	109.344	TER
ATOM	1489	C	SPH	1489	54.102	72.949	106.923	TER
ATOM	1493	C	SPH	1493	56.361	71.419	107.895	TER
ATOM	1501	C	SPH	1501	54.282	70.920	101.151	TER
ATOM	1526	C	SPH	1526	56.462	74.679	104.064	TER
ATOM	1628	C	SPH	1628	39.621	65.378	75.570	TER
ATOM	1658	C	SPH	1658	43.184	64.416	77.273	TER
ATOM	1662	C	SPH	1662	46.247	62.130	74.998	TER
ATOM	1664	C	SPH	1664	42.149	64.707	73.205	TER
ATOM	1698	C	SPH	1698	55.182	62.800	86.283	TER
ATOM	1704	C	SPH	1704	51.508	61.514	91.278	TER
ATOM	1711	C	SPH	1711	51.775	68.337	84.946	TER
ATOM	1740	C	SPH	1740	36.205	53.174	77.412	TER
ATOM	1741	C	SPH	1741	38.858	60.949	72.680	TER
ATOM	1751	C	SPH	1751	35.201	51.528	80.868	TER
ATOM	1753	C	SPH	1753	34.513	50.785	84.262	TER
ATOM	1772	C	SPH	1772	42.084	63.230	74.571	TER
ATOM	1775	C	SPH	1775	37.902	60.234	72.184	TER
ATOM	1777	C	SPH	1777	35.974	59.670	69.472	TER
ATOM	1786	C	SPH	1786	31.430	58.510	72.201	TER
ATOM	1787	C	SPH	1787	32.573	55.804	71.761	TER
ATOM	1795	C	SPH	1795	32.745	58.092	86.419	TER
ATOM	1798	C	SPH	1798	32.252	52.496	85.902	TER
ATOM	1839	C	SPH	1839	30.770	56.443	86.032	TER
ATOM	2629	C	SPH	2629	39.229	59.301	94.545	TER
ATOM	2635	C	SPH	2635	40.613	61.218	93.771	TER
ATOM	2637	C	SPH	2637	47.279	63.059	95.935	TER
ATOM	2641	C	SPH	2641	41.756	55.200	91.747	TER
ATOM	2646	C	SPH	2646	33.473	56.623	88.042	TER
ATOM	2658	C	SPH	2658	45.649	58.293	93.402	TER
ATOM	2660	C	SPH	2660	51.007	61.039	91.625	TER
ATOM	2663	C	SPH	2663	50.990	63.310	92.381	TER
ATOM	2666	C	SPH	2666	52.196	62.604	89.627	TER
ATOM	2671	C	SPH	2671	53.566	64.619	87.083	TER

Appendix

ATOM	2674	C	SPH	2674	53.906	67.132	84.964	TER
ATOM	2709	C	SPH	2709	50.957	64.400	100.022	TER
ATOM	2712	C	SPH	2712	55.995	71.356	102.441	TER
ATOM	2736	C	SPH	2736	51.918	72.109	100.446	TER
ATOM	2746	C	SPH	2746	48.619	64.995	96.863	TER
ATOM	2756	C	SPH	2756	51.675	68.539	98.651	TER
ATOM	2939	C	SPH	2939	37.342	54.921	93.817	TER
ATOM	2941	C	SPH	2941	35.764	53.896	93.088	TER
ATOM	2975	C	SPH	2975	46.904	53.457	106.523	TER
ATOM	2977	C	SPH	2977	48.204	53.552	111.462	TER
ATOM	2978	C	SPH	2978	45.401	54.537	107.845	TER
ATOM	2987	C	SPH	2987	48.856	53.681	108.937	TER
ATOM	2988	C	SPH	2988	46.741	53.087	105.721	TER
ATOM	2993	C	SPH	2993	49.426	54.705	107.226	TER
ATOM	3000	C	SPH	3000	49.012	56.428	112.876	TER
ATOM	3035	C	SPH	3035	49.427	54.705	107.226	TER
ATOM	3041	C	SPH	3041	46.377	62.562	99.160	TER
ATOM	3045	C	SPH	3045	44.945	62.241	96.493	TER
ATOM	3052	C	SPH	3052	47.331	54.947	108.046	TER
ATOM	3055	C	SPH	3055	45.707	58.551	108.059	TER
ATOM	3057	C	SPH	3057	46.497	63.946	109.030	TER
ATOM	3059	C	SPH	3059	47.520	59.261	109.811	TER
ATOM	3060	C	SPH	3060	54.235	63.277	107.033	TER
ATOM	3061	C	SPH	3061	49.464	59.228	111.578	TER
ATOM	3063	C	SPH	3063	49.576	62.981	104.033	TER
ATOM	3067	C	SPH	3067	49.992	63.236	98.845	TER
ATOM	3069	C	SPH	3069	43.095	63.469	98.545	TER
ATOM	3070	C	SPH	3070	50.742	65.144	99.754	TER
ATOM	3072	C	SPH	3072	48.786	66.641	98.516	TER
ATOM	3082	C	SPH	3082	42.193	57.912	94.339	TER
ATOM	3088	C	SPH	3088	40.388	62.815	112.559	TER
ATOM	3090	C	SPH	3090	40.492	62.446	115.581	TER
ATOM	3091	C	SPH	3091	49.711	57.883	112.383	TER
ATOM	3109	C	SPH	3109	41.523	67.215	110.841	TER
ATOM	3114	C	SPH	3114	33.092	65.566	111.719	TER
ATOM	3115	C	SPH	3115	36.783	61.948	115.755	TER
ATOM	3119	C	SPH	3119	36.852	63.320	111.363	TER
ATOM	3125	C	SPH	3125	34.380	63.684	112.656	TER
ATOM	3127	C	SPH	3127	31.873	64.131	113.569	TER
ATOM	3293	C	SPH	3293	36.013	39.687	83.242	TER

Fig.4.5.Showsph.in File

Receptors.sph
1
N
selected_spheres.pdb

Fig.4.6.Showbox.in File

```
Y
5.0
Receptors.sph
1
Box.pdb
```

Fig.4.7.Grid.in File

```
Compute grids      yes
Grid spacing      0.3
Output molecule  no
Contact score    no
Energy score     yes
Energy cutoff distance 9999
Atom model       a
Attractive exponent 6
Repulsive exponent 9
Distance dielectric yes
Dielectric factor 4
Bump filter      yes
Bump overlap     0.75
Receptor file    receptor_charged.mol2
Box file         box.pdb
Vdw definition file /home/pc/AMS536software/dock6/parameaters/vdw_AMBER_parm99.defn
Score grid prefix grid
```

Fig.4.8.Rigid.in File

```

Ligand_outfile_prefix      rigid
Limit_max_ligands         no
Read_mol_solvation        no
Write_orientations        no
Write_conformations       no
Skip_molecule            no
Calculate_rmsd            yes
Use_rmsd_reference_mol    no
Rank_ligands              no
Num_scored_conformers_written 1
Orient_ligand             yes
Automated_matching        yes
Receptor_site_file        receptorsphere.sph
Max_orientations          500
Critical_points           no
Chemical_matching         no
Use_ligand_spheres        no
Flexible_ligand           no
Bump_filter               no
Score_molecules           yes
Contact_score_primary     no
Contact_score_secondary   no
Grid_score_primary        yes
Grid_score_secondary      no
Grid_score_vdw_scale      1
Grid_score_es_scale       1
Grid_score_grid_prefix    grid
Dock3.5_score_secondary   no
Continuous_score_secondary no
Gbsa_zou_score_secondary  no
Gbsa_hawkins_score_secondary no
Amber_score_secondary     no
Minimize_ligand          yes
Simple_max_iterations      1000
Simple_max_cycles         1
Simplex_score_converge     0.1
Simplex_cycle_converge     1.0
Simplex_trans_step         1.0
Simplex_rot_step           0.1
Simplex_tors_step          10.0
Simplex_final_min_add_internal no
Simplex_random_seed        0
Atom_model                all
Vdw_defn_file              /home/pc/AS53software/dock6/parameters/vdw_AMBER_parm99.defn
flex_defn_file             /home/pc/AS53software/dock6/parameters/flex.defn
flex_drive_file            /home/pc/AS53software/dock6/parameters/flex_drive.tbl

```

Table.5.22 nLC-MS Results Summary

Strain	NCTC 6571	NCTC 6571	NCTC 6571	NCTC 6571	MTCC 737	MTCC 96	MTCC 96
MS Sample	Control	Formulation (7.8 µg /ml CG + 62.5 µg /ml O)	Formulation (7.8 µg /ml CG+ 2000 µg /ml P)	Control	Formulation(31.5 µg /ml CG + 62.5 µg	Control	Formulation (7.8 µg /ml CG + 125
Observed Mass	1025.489	1025.49	1025.489	1025.488	1025.492	1025.489	1025.504
FWHM	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.02
Height	2733.0	1724.0	1173.0	14100.0	545.0	1985.0	504.0
Peak Area	90.38	51.49	31.28	421.16	11.63	59.29	12.90
Peak Area (%)	100	56.98	34.61	100	2.76	100	21.76
Observed Mass	1139.549	1139.55	1139.549	1139.563	1139.549	1139.534	1139.549
FWHM	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.02
Height	891.0	566.0	420.0	1311.0	311.0	1492.0	475.0
Peak Area	27.56	14.49	10.30	34.96	6.97	42.97	11.65
Peak Area (%)	100	1.90	2.67	100	5.02	100	3.69
Observed Mass	1253.601	1253.586	1253.585	1253.601	1253.601	1253.601	1253.601
FWHM	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.02
Height	1470.0	552.00	304.00	919.00	469.00	898.00	686.00
Peak Area	47.04	14.13	6.81	23.53	10.01	23.95	16.10
Peak Area (%)	100	3.33	6.91	100	2.35	100	1.49
	Monoglycine Disaccharide						
	Triglycine Disaccharide						
	Pentaglycine Disaccharide						

MEDIA COMPOSITION

Muller Hinton Agar		30% Glycerol Stock Solution	
Ingredients	Quantity (g/l)	Glycerol	30ml
Beef infusion	300.0	DDW	70ml
Casein acid hydrolysate	17.5	Sterilized by autoclaving at 15 lbs pressure (121°C) for 15 min	
Starch	1.5		
Agar	17.0		
Final pH at 25°C (7.3±0.2)		Digestion Buffer	
Sterilized by autoclaving at 15 lbs pressure (121°C) for 15 min.		(12.5mM Sodium dihydrogen Phosphate (PH 5.5))	
Muller Hinton Broth		NaH ₂ PO ₄	2mg
Ingredients	Quantity (g/l)	DDW	2ml
Beef infusion	300.0	Adjust pH 5.5 with H ₃ PO ₄ (98%)	
Casein acid hydrolysate	17.5	Sterilized by autoclaving at 15 lbs pressure (121°C) for 15 min	
Starch	1.5		
Sterilized by autoclaving at 15 lbs pressure (121°C) for 15 min.		0.5 M Borax (Borate Buffer)	
Nutrient Agar		Borax	10gm
Ingredients	Quantity (g/l)	DDW	100ml
Peptic digest of animal tissue	5.0	Sterilized by autoclaving at 15 lbs pressure (121°C) for 15 min	
Beef extract	1.5		
Yeast extract	1.5	Reduction Solution	
NaCl	5.0	(10 mg/ml Sodium Borohydrate in 0.5 M borax, pH9)	
Agar	15.0	NaBH ₄	2mg
Final pH at 25°C (7.4±0.2)		Borate Buffer	200 µl
Sterilized by autoclaving at 15 lbs pressure (121°C) for 15 min.		1M HCl	
BUFFERS AND SOLUTIONS		Concentration HCl	1ml
0.5 Mc Farland		DDW	11ml
BaCl ₂ (0.048 M)	0.5 ml	70% Ethanol	
H ₂ SO ₄ (0.18 M)	99.5 ml	Absolute Alcohol	70ml
Saline		DDW	30ml
NaCl	0.85 g	0.02% TTC	
DDW	100.0 ml	TTC	20µl
Sterilized by autoclaving at 15 lbs pressure (121°C) for 15 min		DDW	100ml

MOLECULAR BIOLOGY REAGENTS*

1 M Tris- HCl (pH 8.0)**		0.1M Tris-HCL(pH 6.8)**	
Tris- HCl	15.76 g	1M Tris HCL	10ml
Sterile DDW	100 ml	DDW	90ml

Appendix

0.25% SDS in 0.1M Tris-HCL		CTAB	10 g
SDS	100mg	Sterile DDW	100 ml
0.1M Tris-HCL	40ml		
		10% CTAB- 0.7M NaCl**	
0.5 M EDTA (pH 8.0)**		CTAB	10 g
EDTA	18.61g	NaCl	4.1 g
Sterile DDW	100 ml	Sterile DDW	100 ml
Adjust pH to 8.0 using 10 M NaOH		Dissolve 4.1 g NaCl in 80 ml water and slowly add 10 g CTAB (Cetyl trimethyl ammonium bromide) while heating and stirring. Adjust final volume to 100 ml.	
Tris EDTA (1X) **			
Tris- HCl	10 mM		
EDTA	1 mM		
		5M NaCl**	
Lysozyme (100mg/ml)		NaCl	29.22 g
Lysozyme	100 mg	Sterile DDW	100 ml
Sterile DDW	1 ml		
		Chloroform: Isoamyl Alcohol (24: 1)	
Proteinase K (20mg/ml)		Chloroform	24.0 ml
Proteinase K	20 mg	Isoamyl Alcohol	1.0 ml
Sterile DDW	1 ml		
		Phenol: Chloroform: Isoamyl Alcohol (25: 24: 1)	
RNase A (10mg/ml)		Phenol	25.0 ml
RNase	10 mg	Chloroform	24.0 ml
Sterile DDW	1 ml	Isoamyl Alcohol	1.0 ml
		**TAE Buffer (50X) **	
Trypsin (50mg/ml)		Tris base (2M)	242.0 g/l
Trypsin	50mg	Glacial acetic acid (1M)	57.1 ml
DDW	1ml	EDTA (0.5M), pH 8.0	100 ml
		Sterile DDW	842.9 ml
DNase (1mg/ml)			
DNase	1mg	TAE Buffer (1X)	
DDW	1ml	TAE Buffer (50X)	2 ml
		Sterile DDW	98 ml
RNase B (1mg/ml)			
RNAse A(10X)	10ml	Ethidium Bromide (EtBr)	
DDW	90ml	EtBr	10.0 mg
		Sterile DDW	1.0 ml
Solution B (15mg/ml DNase, 60mg/ml RNase in 0.1 M Tris-HCl pH 6.8)			
DNase	15µl	6X Loading Buffer	
RNase B	60 µl	Bromophenol blue	0.025g
0.1M Tris-HCL(pH 6.8)	925µl	Glycerol	3.0 ml
		Sterile DDW	7.0 ml
10% SDS**			
SDS	10 g	0.8% Agarose	
Sterile DDW	100 ml	Agarose	0.8 g
		TAE buffer (1X)	100 ml
10% CTAB**			

Appendix

1.5% Agarose

Agarose 1.5 g

TAE buffer (1X) 100 ml

*All reagents were molecular biology grade

** Reagents were sterilized by autoclaving at 121°C, 15 lbs for 20 min

Screening and Toxicity Analysis of Catechin Isomers Against FemA Protein

DIVYA SINGHAL AND S. SAXENA*

Department of Biotechnology, Thapar University, Patiala-147 004, India

Singhal and Saxena: Comparative Screening of Catechin Isomers

Fem proteins are the essential structural proteins of various gram-positive bacteria. These are of three different types namely FemX (FmhB), FemA and FemB. Only two Fem protein crystallographic structures are available till date, one for FemA in *Staphylococcus aureus* and another for FemX in *Weissella viridescens*. In this study, computational methods are used to evaluate interaction of FemA protein with catechin and epicatechin analogues. The interaction of FemA protein with catechin and epicatechin analogues are confirmed by binding energy and scores given by Autodock Vina and UCSF Dock docking softwares, which is followed by Lipinski filters and toxicity studies using online Lipinski server of SCFBIO and OSIRIS. Catechin gallate has been found as the best ligand for FemA protein in all aspects and it has outperformed all catechin and epicatechin isomers.

Key words: Fem, virtual screening, gram-positive, bacteria

Methicillin resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) is a major cause of various nosocomial infections in humans, which are responsible for morbidity and mortality. Target site of β -lactam antibiotics predominantly is PBP-2 protein. Production of additional low-affinity PBP-2a or PBP-2' protein by *mecA* chromosomal structural gene is responsible for the resistance of *S. aureus*. Fem genes are the other additional chromosomal genes, which are responsible for methicillin resistance^[1]. Fem genes belong to FemXAB family and produces three proteins namely, FemX (fmhB), FemA and FemB. Fem proteins are responsible for sequential building of interpeptide bonds in cell wall of *Staphylococcus aureus*. FemX (fmhB) forms first glycine-lysine bond^[2,3], followed by next two bonds by FemA and last two by FemB protein^[4]. This penta-glycine chain is essential for integrity of cell wall of *S. aureus*. Inhibition of either of these proteins can acts as a target for new drug development against gram-positive bacteria^[5].

In the present work, FemA has been considered as a potential target to identify inhibitors for overcoming resistance to β -lactam antibiotics in *S. aureus*. FemA is the only fem protein of *S. aureus* for which x-ray crystallography structure is available (1LRZA)^[5]. It

is composed of 426 amino acid residues and has a molecular weight of 50.27kDa.

Flavanoids like epicatechin gallate and epigallocatechin gallate, which are constituents of green tea have been reported to change the architecture of the cell wall of *S. aureus*^[6,7]. Moreso, analogs of these compounds viz. cis and trans forms of catechin and epicatechin also exist as naturally occurring flavanoids. Generally the catechin comprise of three aromatic rings. The first two rings are benzene rings with hydroxyl groups while the third is dihydropyran heterocycle with hydroxyl group at carbon 3. As C₂ and C₃ are chiral, these structure exhibit (fig. 1) stereoisomerism. Scientists have synthesized various analogues by substitution of these hydroxyl groups with other alkyl groups or other chemical moiety. For example by addition of gallate group at C3 catechin gallate, epicatechin gallate, EGCG, has been formed, which are stored in various

This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 3.0 License, which allows others to remix, tweak, and build upon the work non-commercially, as long as the author is credited and the new creations are licensed under the identical terms.

For reprints contact: reprints@medknow.com

*Address for correspondence

E-mail: sanjaibiotech@yahoo.com

Accepted 29 November 2015

Revised 11 October 2015

Received 01 January 2015

Indian J Pharm Sci 2015;77(6):758-763

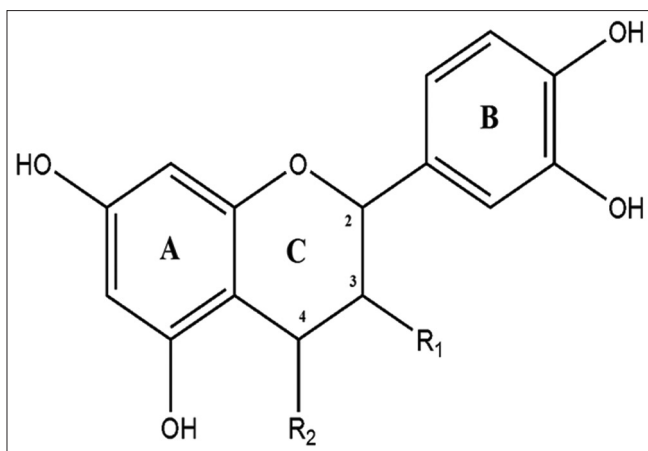


Fig. 1: Structure of catechin

Structure of catechin showing two benzene rings A and B with two hydroxyl groups each and a dihydropyran heterocycle ring C with two R groups (viz. R1 and R2) at C3 and C4 position, except catechol where rings B and C are missing. Catechin gallate is R1 is -H and R2- is 3,4,5-trihydroxybenzoyl group and procyanidin B2 contains R1 is -OH and R2 is catechinyll group.

structure databases like Zinc^[8] and Pubchem^[9]. Thus in this study, all synthetic and semi-synthetic analogs of catechins have been evaluated as inhibitor to assess their potential to bind with FemA protein.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Ligand and protein preparation:

FemA protein having 1lrz PDB id was retrieved from RCSB-Protein data bank (www.rcsb.org). Downloaded 1lrz structure was prepared for docking in mol2 and pdbqt format files by deleting all hetero atoms and water molecules by chimera^[10] and MGL^[11] tools, respectively. Pdb format file of 1lrz having no hydrogen atom was also prepared by Chimera. This file was used as input for generation of ms format file by DMS tool. Similarly, ms format file was used to generate sph format file by sphgen tool.

Ligand structures were retrieved from Pubchem database. Pubchem database consists of 15 catechin and epicatechin analogues, which are available in chemical form. All these molecules were downloaded in sdf format. Similar to protein all ligands were prepared in mol2, pdbqt and pdb format.

Docking studies:

It was carried out by two tools, Autodock Vina and UCSF dock. Autodock Vina^[12] uses pdbqt input files both for ligands as well as protein. Center grid coordinates used in this study, for Autodock Vina

were 35.829×63.416×94.89 while size used for x, y, z were 76×102×20, respectively. Spacing used in Autodock Vina was 1.000 at different exhaustiveness values. While, in case of UCSF Dock 6.5^[13] mol2 files were used and moreover instead of using user defined center coordinates, different sphere clusters were calculated by sphgen software. Sphgen software used dms software output file, which consists of molecular surface of receptor. Total 78 clusters were calculated, out of these, cluster 1 having 111 spheres with their coordinates was used for generation of grid and box files for 1lrz protein. Docking was performed with all ligand files using grid spacing of 0.3 Å.

Rigid docking was performed by both the softwares. The docking orientations are ranked based on a molecular mechanics-like scoring function known as Dock score in case of UCSF Dock, binding energy in case of Autodock Vina. Protein residues forming hydrogen and hydrophobic interactions with ligand molecule is further calculated by Ligplot+ software^[14].

Toxicological studies:

To determine the toxic level of best FemA inhibitors, toxicity studies was performed by online server, OSIRIS property explorer^[15] (<http://www.organicchemistry.org/prog/peo/>) during toxicological analysis various *in silico* tests were performed to detect the risk of mutagenicity, carcinogenicity, teratogenicity, irritants and reproductive effects. These predictions depend on comparison between precomputed set of structural moieties whose properties are already known with structural moieties of molecules loaded by user on server.

Lipinski filters:

Lipinski filters or Lipinski rule of five distinguishes between drug like and nondrug like molecules. It is also known as Pfizer's rule of Five. It is a thumb rule to predict the probability of a chemical to be orally active drug in humans. According to this rule molecular mass of molecule should be less than 500 Dalton, lipophilicity represented by LogP should be less than 5, hydrogen bond donors (HBD) should be less than 5, hydrogen bond acceptors (HBA) should be less than 10 and molar refractivity (MR) should be lies between 40-130. Molecule failing in more than 2 rules is considered as nondrug molecule. Lipinski filtering was performed by Lipinski filter tool of SCFBIO at IITDelhi server^[16].

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Docking of FemA protein with catechin and epicatechin analogues have exhibited 100% results with Autodock Vina while 50% with UCSF DOCK. Ligands were ranked on the basis of binding energy and grid score given by Autodock Vina and UCSF Dock 6.5, respectively. As shown in Table 1 both docking tools has predicted (-)catechin gallate with cid 6419835 as best inhibitor having best binding affinity of -8.7 kcal/mol with Autodock Vina and best dock score of -45.19 with UCSF Dock among all 15 analogues. Best conformations of best ligands predicted by both the softwares are shown in fig. 2a and b.

FemA protein structure consists of one helical arm and one globular domain. Globular domain is further divided into two sub-domains and some secondary structure elements. Helical arm is formed of residues 246-307 and in case of globular domain residues 1-110, 129-144, 396-401 forms first sub-globular domain, and residues 145-166, 189-245 and 308-395 forms second sub-globular domain and rest 111-128, 167-188, and 402-412 residues are part of secondary structure elements^[5]. Globular domain is similar to HAT domain of *Tetrahymena* GCN5. Globular domain of FemA protein consists of five additional structural elements that are not found in the structure of GCN5. Two β strands that extends from first sub-domain of globular domain and two α helices that lies on the top of second sub-domain of globular

domain and one more C-terminal α helix. HAT domain of *Tetrahymena* GCN5 binds with two substrates: Coenzyme A and Peptide^[17]. Similar pockets also exist in both sub-domains of globular domain of FemA protein. These pockets form a deep L-shaped channel, which is a suitable site of binding for FemA protein in *S. aureus*^[5]. Helical domain of FemA protein is similar to seryl-tRNA synthetases in bacteria^[18,19]. Function of helical domain in FemA and seryl-tRNA synthetases is just to holding of charged amino acid t-RNA molecule during addition of glycine in penta-glycine chain^[20-23]. Therefore it is not available for inhibitors, only pockets in L-shaped channel of sub-domains of globular protein is available for inhibitors (fig. 2e).

As shown in fig. 2c and d according to both the softwares catechin gallate is binding exactly between the active sites in L-shaped channel of first sub-globular domain of FemA protein. Best ligand conformation predicted by both the docking tools were further used to form complex with protein and these were further used with Ligplot+ to calculate hydrogen and hydrophobic interactions with protein residues. As shown in fig. 3a, according to conformation given by Autodock Vina catechin gallate form hydrogen bonds with GLY 330, LYS 383, PHE 363, ASP 150 residues of FemA protein with distance of 3.18, 3.03, 3.03 and 3.09, respectively (shown in green color), while residues like GLY 365, ALA 329, TYR 327, TYR 328, ILE 155, TYR 364, GLN 154, LEU 153, PHE 149 forms hydrophobic interactions. Similarly, UCSF Dock predicted conformation forms hydrogen bond with

TABLE 1: DOCKING RESULTS OF AUTODOCK VINA AND UCSF DOCK

CID of Pubchem	Name	Grid_score	Binding affinity (kcal/mol)	Dock rank	Vina rank
6419835	(-)-catechin gallate	-45.195	-8.7	1	1
73160	(-)-catechin; catechin L-form	-34.034	-8.7	6	2
5276454	(-)-catechin gallate; (2R,3S)-2-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)-5,7-dihydroxy-3,4-dihydro-2Hchromen-3-yl 3,4,5-trihydroxybenzoate; XEG	-44.642	-8.5	2	3
122738	Procyanidin B2; Procyanidol B2	Out of grid	-8.2	Nil	4
182232	(+)-epicatechin; 35323-91-2; ent-epicatechin	-37.057	-8.1	4	5
12309507	L-epicatechin	-34.499	-8.1	5	6
9064	Catechin; cyanidanol; (+)-Catechin; D-caechin; (+) cyanidanol	Out of grid	-8.1	Nil	7
65064	(-)-epigallocatechin gallate	Out of grid	-8	Nil	8
107957	Catechin hydrate; (+)-catechin hydrate	Out of grid	-7.7	Nil	9
107905	Epicatechin gallate; (-)-epicatechin gallate; (-)-epicatechin-3-gallate	-43.823	-7.6	3	10
367141	(-)-epicatechin gallate; NSC636594	Out of grid	-7.4	Nil	11
1203	DL-catechin; NSC81746; L-epicatechin	Out of grid	-7.3	Nil	12
72276	Epicatechin; (-)-epicatechin	Out of grid	-7.3	Nil	13
255538	L-Epicatechin; epicatechol	Out of grid	-7.3	Nil	14
289	Catechol; pyrocatechol	-20.687	-4.1	7	15

CID: Compound identifier

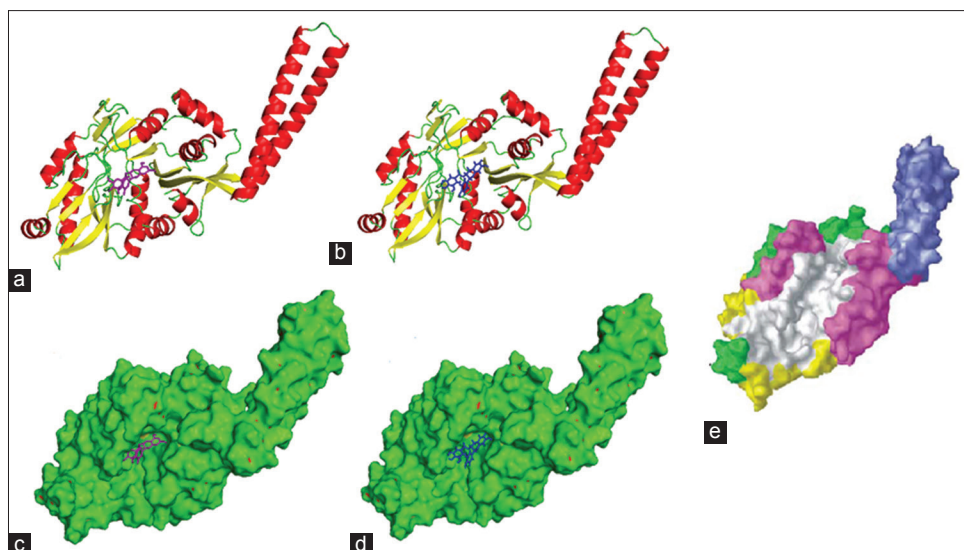


Fig. 2: Docking results of Catechin Gallate with FemaA protein.

(a) Autodock Vina result in cartoon view (b) UCSF Dock result in cartoon view (c) Autodock Vina result in surface view (d) UCSF Dock result in surface view (e) active site of FemaA protein in L-shaped white color domain in surface view.

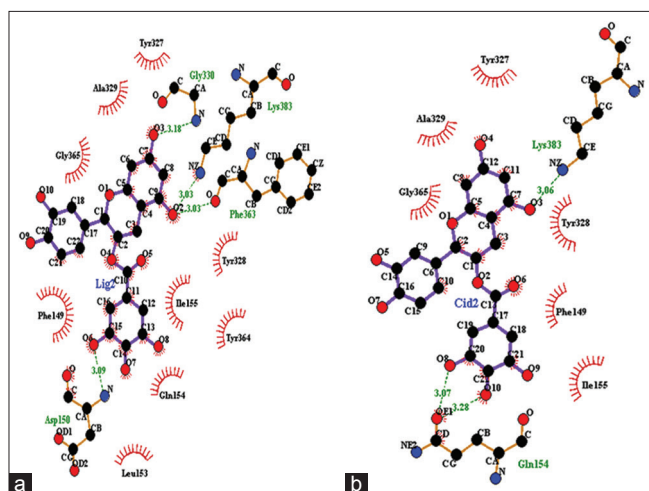


Fig. 3: Interaction of Catechin Gallate with different residues of FemaA protein given by LIGPLOT tool.

(a) Autodock vina result file (b) UCSF Dock result file.

LYS 383 and GLN 154 with bond distance 3.06, 3.07 and 3.28, respectively, while there are six residues, which forms hydrophobic interactions, residues are GLY 365, ALA 329, TYR 327, TYR 328, PHE 149 and ILE 155 (fig. 3b). Both softwares predicted catechin gallate as most efficient ligand for FemaA protein as compared to other catechin and epicatechin derivatives or flavanoids and have shown LYS 383 residue of FemaA protein as a common residue, which forms hydrogen bond and all 6 hydrophobic interacting residues, which were predicted by UCSF Dock were also predicted in Autodock Vina result. It appears that LYS 383 is the most essential residue of FemaA protein for interaction with catechin gallate.

Toxicity analysis was performed by OSIRIS tool. According to OSIRIS if score for any category is 1, then it indicates no risk, if it lies between 0.6-0.8 then the chemical may have medium risk but if score is less than 0.6 it is considered as high risk chemical. As shown in Table 2 all the analogues except catechol ($s=0.6$), have score equal to one for all four risk categories *viz.*-mutagenicity, tumorigenicity, irritation and reproductive effects. Similarly as predicted by other two categories of OSIRIS drug likeness and drug score, which determine whether particular molecule is similar to the known drugs, same molecule catechol was discarded due to poor scores and rest all the molecules are non-hazardous as well as similar to good drugs. Therefore, except catechol; rest 14 molecules are safe and can be used as future drugs. In toxicity analysis catechin gallate has passed all the tests, therefore it may be a ray of hope for various health problems caused by gram-positive bacteria.

As shown in Table 3, two molecules have violated two Lipinski rules, while 6 molecules have violated one rule and rest seven have not violated any Lipinski rule. All the violations are shown in red color and summarized in last category under number of Lipinski value (LV). Pyrocyanidin B2 and EGCG have high chances of failure in preclinical and clinical trials, while rest 13 molecules seems to have very less or no chances of failure.

Ligand molecule catechin gallate Pubchem cid 6419835 has been predicted as a potential inhibitor

TABLE 2: TOXICITY RESULTS PREDICTED BY OSIRIS

CID of Pubchem	Name	Drug likeliness	MR	TR	IE	RE	Drug score
6419835	(-)-catechin gallate	2.81 (score=0.94)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	0.74
73160	(-)-catechin; catechin L-form	1.92 (score=0.87)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	0.86
5276454	(-)-catechin gallate	2.81 (score=0.94)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	0.74
122738	Procyanidin B2	1.92 (score=0.87)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	0.534
182232	(+)-epicatechin; 35323-91-2; ent-epicatechin	1.92 (score=0.87)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	0.86
12309507	L-epicatechin;	1.92 (score=0.87)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	0.86
9064	Catechin; cyanidanol; (+) catechin; (+) cyanidanol	1.92 (score=0.87)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	0.86
65064	(-)-epigallocatechin gallate	1.57 (score=0.83)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	0.69
107957	Catechin hydrate; (+) catechin hydrate	1.92 (score=0.87)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	0.86
107905	Epicatechin gallate; (-)-epicatechin gallate	2.81 (score=0.94)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	0.74
367141	(-)-epicatechin gallate; NSC636594	1.39 (score=0.8)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	0.68
1203	DL-catechin; NSC81746; L-epicatechin	1.92 (score=0.87)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	0.86
72276	Epicatechin; (-)-epicatechin	1.92 (score=0.87)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	0.86
255538	L-epicatechin; epicatechol	1.92 (score=0.87)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	No (score=1)	0.86
289	Catechol; pyrocatechol	-2.25 (score=0.09)	Yes (score=0.6)	Yes (score=0.6)	Yes (score=0.6)	No (score=1)	0.112

CID: Compound identifier, MR: mutagenicity risk, TR: tumorigenicity risk, IE: irritating effects, RE: reproductive effects

TABLE 3: LIPINSKI RESULTS

CID of Pubchem	Name	Molecular weight	HBA	HBD	LogP	MR	Number of LV
6419835	(-)-catechin gallate	442	3	7	3	96.3	1
73160	(-)-catechin; catechin L-form	290	1	5	0.52	64.6	0
5276454	(-)-catechin gallate; (2R,3S)-2-(3,4-dihydroxyphenyl)-5,7-dihydroxy-3,4-dihydro-2Hchromen-3-yl 3,4,5-trihydroxybenzoate	442	3	7	3	96.3	1
122738	Procyanidin B2; procyanidol B2;	578	2	10	0.9	108	2
182232	(+)-epicatechin; 35323-91-2; ent-epicatechin	290	1	5	0.52	64.6	0
12309507	L-epicatechin	290	1	5	0.52	64.6	0
9064	Catechin; cyanidanol; (+)-catechin; D-catechin; (+) cyanidanol	290	6	5	0.4	NA	0
65064	(-)-epigallocatechin gallate	458	11	8	1.2	NA	2
107957	Catechin hydrate; (+)-catechin hydrate	308	7	6	NA	NA	1
107905	Epicatechin gallate; (-)-epicatechin gallate; (-)-epicatechin-3-gallate	442	3	7	3	96.3	1
367141	(-)-epicatechin gallate; NSC636594	442	10	7	1.5	NA	1
1203	DL-catechin; NSC81746; L-epicatechin	290	6	5	0.4	NA	0
72276	Epicatechin; (-)-epicatechin	290	1	5	0.52	64.6	0
255538	L-epicatechin; epicatechol	290	1	5	0.52	64.6	0
289	Catechol; pyrocatechol	110	0	2	1.1	29.8	1

CID: Compound identifier, HBA: hydrogen bond acceptors, HBD: hydrogen bond donors, MR: molar refractivity, LV: Lipinski value, NA: not available

of FemA protein; by two best tools in terms of binding affinity and docking scores and has also shown nontoxic behavior in toxicity tests and also follows Lipinski rule of five. Therefore, if it can be analysed in *in vitro* studies and chances of failure in preclinical and clinical trials seem to be very less and it can be a ray of hope for the treatment of various *S. aureus* infections.

Acknowledgement:

We are thankful to UCSF Lab and Scripps Research Institute Lab as well as OSIRIS and SCFBIO web servers for providing these softwares academically

free. Special thanks to Ligplot team for providing academic license of this software.

Financial support and sponsorship:

Nil.

Conflicts of interest:

There are no conflicts of interest.

REFERENCES

- Mallorqui-Fernández G, Marrero A, García-Piquè S, García-Castellanos R, Gomis-Rüth FX. Staphylococcal methicillin resistance: Fine focus on folds

- and functions. FEMS Microbiol Lett 2004;235:1-8.
2. Ehlert K, Schröder W, Labischinski H. Specificities of FemA and FemB for different glycine residues: FemB cannot substitute for FemA in staphylococcal peptidoglycan pentaglycine side chain formation. J Bacteriol 1997;179:7573-6.
 3. Rohrer S, Ehlert K, Tschierske M, Labischinski H, Berger-Bächi B. The essential *Staphylococcus aureus* gene fmhB is involved in the first step of peptidoglycan pentaglycine interpeptide formation. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 1999;96:9351-6.
 4. Strandén AM, Ehlert K, Labischinski H, Berger-Bächi B. Cell wall monoglycine cross-bridges and methicillin hypersusceptibility in a femAB null mutant of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. J Bacteriol 1997;179:9-16.
 5. Benson TE, Prince DB, Mutchler VT, Curry KA, Ho AM, Sarver RW, et al. X-ray crystal structure of *Staphylococcus aureus* FemA. Structure 2002;10:1107-15.
 6. Stapleton PD, Shah S, Ehlert K, Hara Y, Taylor PW. The beta-lactam-resistance modifier (-)-epicatechin gallate alters the architecture of the cell wall of *Staphylococcus aureus*. Microbiology 2007;153:2093-103.
 7. Ando C, Kono K, Tataru I, Takeda S, Arakawa K. Antibacterial activity of epigallocatechin gallate against staphylococci. Med Bull Fukuoka Univ 1999;26:195-7.
 8. Bolton E, Wang Y, Thiessen PA, Bryant SH. PubChem: Integrated Platform of Small Molecules and Biological Activities. Chapter 12 in Annual Reports in Computational Chemistry. Washington, DC: American Chemical Society; 2008.
 9. Irwin JJ, Shoichet BK. ZINC – A free database of commercially available compounds for virtual screening. J Chem Inf Model 2005;45:177-82.
 10. Pettersen EF, Goddard TD, Huang CC, Couch GS, Greenblatt DM, Meng EC, et al. UCSF Chimera – A visualization system for exploratory research and analysis. J Comput Chem 2004;25:1605-12.
 11. Johnson GT, Autin L, Goodsell DS, Sanner MF, Olson AJ. ePMV embeds molecular modeling into professional animation software environments. Structure 2011;19:293-303.
 12. Trott O, Olson AJ. AutoDock Vina: Improving the speed and accuracy of docking with a new scoring function, efficient optimization, and multithreading. J Comput Chem 2010;31:455-61.
 13. Lang PT, Brozell SR, Mukherjee S, Pettersen EF, Meng EC, Thomas V, et al. DOCK 6: Combining techniques to model RNA-small molecule complexes. RNA 2009;15:1219-30.
 14. Laskowski RA, Swindells MB. LigPlot+: Multiple ligand-protein interaction diagrams for drug discovery. J Chem Inf Model 2011;51:2778-86.
 15. Sander T, Actelion Pharmaceuticals Ltd., Gewerbestrasse 16, 4123 Allschwil, Switzerland. Organic Chemistry Portal; 2014. Available from: <http://www.organic-chemistry.org/prog/peo/>. [Last accessed on 2013 Jan 01].
 16. Jayaram B. Scfbioitd Web Server. Available from: <http://www.scfbioitd.res.in/utility/lipinskiFilters.jsp>. [Last accessed on 2013 Jan 01].
 17. Rojas JR, Trievel RC, Zhou J, Mo Y, Li X, Berger SL, et al. Structure of *Tetrahymena* GCN5 bound to coenzyme A and a histone H3 peptide. Nature 1999;401:93-8.
 18. Cusack S, Berthet-Colominas C, Härtlein M, Nassar N, Leberman R. A second class of synthetase structure revealed by X-ray analysis of *Escherichia coli* seryl-tRNA synthetase at 2.5 Å. Nature 1990;347:249-55.
 19. Fujinaga M, Berthet-Colominas C, Yaremchuk AD, Tukalo MA, Cusack S. Refined crystal structure of the seryl-tRNA synthetase from *Thermus thermophilus* at 2.5 Å resolution. J Mol Biol 1993;234:222-33.
 20. Kamiryo T, Matsuhashi M. Sequential addition of glycine from glycyl-tRNA to the lipid-linked precursors of cell wall peptidoglycan in *Staphylococcus aureus*. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 1969;36:215-22.
 21. Kamiryo T, Matsuhashi M. The biosynthesis of the cross-linking peptides in the cell wall peptidoglycan of *Staphylococcus aureus*. J Biol Chem 1972;247:6306-11.
 22. Katz W, Matsuhashi M, Dietrich CP, Strominger JL. Biosynthesis of the peptidoglycan of bacterial cell walls. IV. Incorporation of glycine in *Micrococcus lysodeikticus*. J Biol Chem 1967;242:3207-17.
 23. Thorndike J, Park JT. A method for demonstrating the stepwise addition of glycine from transfer RNA into the murein precursor of *Staphylococcus aureus*. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 1969;35:642-7.



Research article

Catechin gallate a promising resistance modifying candidate to potentiate β -lactam antibiotics to overcome resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus*



Divya Singhal, Sanjai Saxena*

Department of Biotechnology, Thapar University, Patiala, Punjab, 147004, India

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 8 September 2017

Accepted 25 October 2017

Available online 27 October 2017

Keywords:

Antibiotics

FIC index

Staphylococcus aureus

Synergy

Oxacillin

ABSTRACT

Drug discovery is a cost intensive and time consuming approach therefore contingent alternatives are being explored to combat drug resistant bacteria which cause chronic infections. Resistance modifying agents offer plausible alternatives in reviving the current antimicrobial drugs thereby making them effective to be used in clinical settings. We for the first time report the promising activity of (–)-Catechin gallate selected using *in silico* studies with *FemA* protein of *Staphylococcus aureus*. The MIC of the test isolates of *S. aureus* viz. NCTC 6571, MTCC737 and MTCC 96 by visual method was 500 μ g and 8000 μ g for Oxacillin and Penicillin respectively. (–)-Catechin gallate induced an 8-fold reduction in the MIC of Oxacillin in *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 and MTCC 737 at concentration of 7.8 μ g/ml and 31.25 μ g/ml respectively. A 4-fold reduction, in MIC of Penicillin and Oxacillin at concentration of 7.8 μ g/ml of (–)-Catechin gallate in NCTC 6571 and MTCC 96 respectively. These synergistic combinations in time kill assay exhibited a reduction between 2 and 6 \log_{10} in the CFU of the test microbes thereby suggesting (–)-Catechin gallate to be a promising candidate for further evaluation as a resistance modifying agent to overcome resistance to first generation of β -lactam antibiotics.

© 2017 Sir Ganga Ram Hospital. Published by Elsevier, a division of RELX India, Pvt. Ltd. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Discovery of Penicillin in the twentieth century revolutionized the field of medicine and saved countless lives by combating bacterial infections.¹ However, just after four years of its introduction, *Staphylococcus aureus* expressed resistance to Penicillin by production of a β -lactamase enzyme. An analogue of Penicillin, Methicillin/Oxacillin was developed to overcome the β -lactamase resistant *S. aureus*. However with the widespread use of oxacillin/methicillin, antibiotic resistant strains emerged which were referred as Methicillin Resistant/Oxacillin Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA/ORSA).²

Antibiotic resistance today is a burgeoning phenomenon due to indiscriminate and inappropriate use of antibiotics which is encountered by the clinicians across the globe. Chronic infections caused by these superbugs are a major cause of mortality and morbidity in the community as well as hospitals.³ The currently described strains of *S. aureus* exhibit resistance to different classes

of antibiotics comprising of all β -lactams, macrolides, aminoglycosides, tetracyclines, rifampicin, quinolones and glycopeptide like vancomycin.⁴ *S. aureus* shows extreme genetic plasticity and hence, it is currently developing resistance towards all known classes of antibiotics. However some strains are becoming multi-antibiotic resistant strains thereby posing a greater difficulty and threat as infections caused by them are not retractable/chronic and prove fatal.

Discovery and development of new antibiotics is a time and cost intensive proposition. Therefore one of the best strategies to control bacterial resistance is to extend the life of currently used antibiotics by associating them with modulators of resistance.⁵ Resistance modifying agents (RMA's) like Clavulanic acid have been successfully formulated with β -lactam antibiotic Amoxicillin for overcoming resistance to *S. aureus* isolates expressing serine β -lactamases.⁶ However, β -lactam resistance mediated through PBP2a in MRSA is not reverted by Clavulanic acid.⁷ Hence, there is a need to explore novel RMA's targeting bacterial growth pathways and resistance mechanisms.

FemA is an essential protein which plays a prominent role in formation of interpeptide bonds in the pentaglycine linkages which are essential for the integrity of the cell wall of *S. aureus*.⁸ Thus, inhibition of *FemA* could serve as a new site of action for

* Corresponding author.

E-mail addresses: divysinghal@gmail.com (D. Singhal), ssaxena@thapar.edu, sanjaibiotech@yahoo.com (S. Saxena).

potentiating the action of β -lactam antibiotics. Flavonoids like Epicatechin gallate and Epigallocatechin gallate which are constituents of green tea that have been reported to change the architecture of cell wall of *S. aureus*⁹ and we have reported that (–)-Catechin gallate (CG) exhibits the best inhibition potential of *FemA* protein as compared to Epicatechin gallate and catechin analogues during *in silico* screening of Catechin library from PubChem database as inhibitors of *FemA*.¹⁰ Thus, the present study was proposed to evaluate the role of (–)-Catechin gallate as a possible synergist of β -lactam antibiotics Penicillin and Oxacillin.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Bacterial strains and CG

Three standard strains of *Staphylococcus aureus* viz. NCTC6571, MTCC737 and MTCC96 were used in the present study. The bacterial isolates were stored in 30% glycerol stock and frozen at -70°C . These were recovered and sub-cultured on Mueller Hinton broth (MHB) and Mueller Hinton Agar (MHA) (HiMedia, India). Stocks of the cultures were maintained on MHA at 4°C throughout the study. Sodium salts of antibiotics Oxacillin and Penicillin were procured from HiMedia, Mumbai. CG used in the study was obtained from Sigma Aldrich and dissolved in DMSO prior to use.

2.2. Antimicrobial activity by in vitro microbroth dilution method

The minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) of Penicillin, Oxacillin and CG were determined using *in vitro* microbroth dilution assay using a 96 well titer Plate.¹¹ Briefly 16–20 h old culture suspensions of all the test microorganisms were adjusted with 0.5 McFarland solution using sterile physiological saline (0.85% NaCl) to achieve a final bacterial count of approximately 10^5 CFU/ml. 50 μl of this bacterial suspension was then added to 125 μl MHB in control cells as well as test cells. The titer-plates were then incubated at 37°C for 3 h and then antibiotics (Penicillin/Oxacillin) and the test compound were added to have an effective concentration between 500 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ and 3.9 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ per well. After 24 h of incubation 30 μl of 0.02% Triphenyl Tetrazolium Chloride (TTC) was added as indicator in all wells and then MIC was observed. All concentrations were tested in triplicates.¹¹

2.3. Checkerboard assay and FIC index

Checkerboard assay was carried out to evaluate the synergistic potential of CG with Penicillin and Oxacillin in different concentrations for possible use as a formulation. The synergistic activity was determined by the FIC index.¹² Five different dilutions 2MIC, MIC, 1/2MIC, 1/4MIC & 1/8MIC of antibiotics and test compound

Table 1

MIC, FIC and FICI of Penicillin and Oxacillin with Catechin gallate (Cg) against standard cultures of *Staphylococcus aureus*.

Test isolate	Drug Combination (A/B)	MIC – Drug A ($\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$)	MIC – Drug B ($\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$)	Combination MIC (A/B) ($\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$)	FIC-Drug A	FIC-Drug B	FICI	Interpretation	MIC reduction (folds)
NCTC 6571	CG/Oxacillin	62.5	500	125/62.5	2	0.125	2.125	Indifference	
				62.5/62.5	1	0.125	1.125	Indifference	
				31.25/62.5	0.5	0.125	0.625	Partial synergy	8 fold
				15.6/62.5	0.25	0.125	0.375	Synergy	8 fold
				7.8/62.5	0.125	0.125	0.25	Synergy	8 fold
				125/2000	2	0.25	2.25	Indifference	
	CG/Penicillin	62.5	8000	62.5/4000	1	0.5	1.5	Indifference	
				31.25/2000	0.5	0.25	0.75	Partial synergy	4 fold
				15.6/4000	0.25	0.5	0.75	Partial synergy	2 fold
				7.8/2000	0.125	0.25	0.375	Synergy	4 fold
				125/1000	2	0.125	2.125	Indifference	
				125/2000	1	0.25	1.25	Indifference	
MTCC 737	CG/Oxacillin	125	500	250/62.5	2	0.125	2.125	Indifference	
				125/62.5	1	0.125	1.125	Indifference	
				62.5/62.5	0.5	0.125	0.625	Partial synergy	8 fold
				31.25/62.5	0.25	0.125	0.375	Synergy	8 fold
				15.6/125	0.125	0.25	0.375	Synergy	4 fold
				250/1000	2	0.125	2.125	Indifference	
	CG/Penicillin	125	8000	125/2000	1	0.25	1.25	Indifference	
				62.5/4000	0.5	0.5	1	Additive	2 fold
				31.25/4000	0.25	0.5	0.75	Partial synergy	2 fold
				15.6/4000	0.125	0.5	0.625	Partial synergy	2 fold
				125/2000	2	0.25	2.25	Indifference	
				62.5/4000	1	0.5	1.5	Indifference	
MTCC 96	CG/Oxacillin	62.5	500	125/62.5	2	0.125	2.125	Indifference	
				62.5/62.5	1	0.125	1.125	Indifference	
				31.25/62.5	0.5	0.125	0.625	Partial synergy	8 fold
				15.6/125	0.25	0.25	0.5	Synergy	4 fold
				7.8/125	0.125	0.25	0.375	Synergy	4 fold
				125/2000	2	0.25	2.25	Indifference	
	CG/Penicillin	62.5	8000	62.5/4000	1	0.5	1.5	Indifference	
				31.25/4000	0.5	0.5	1	Additive	2 fold
				15.6/4000	0.25	0.5	0.75	Partial synergy	2 fold
				7.8/4000	0.125	0.5	0.625	Partial synergy	2 fold
				125/2000	2	0.25	2.25	Indifference	
				62.5/4000	1	0.5	1.5	Indifference	

Bold values indicate the best synergistic combination.

combinations were used for this experiment. The concentration range of antibiotics for the checkerboard assay was between 1000 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ and 62.5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ except for Penicillin against *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 which exhibited a MIC of 8000 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ and hence tested between 16000 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ and 1000 $\mu\text{g/ml}$. The antibiotics were dispensed horizontally in a concentration gradient across the rows of the microtiter plate while the test compound (RMA) was dispensed vertically using a two-fold dilution method between the concentration of 250 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ and 7.8 $\mu\text{g/ml}$. Each well was dispensed with 125 μl MH broth and 50 μl of culture inoculum having 10^5 CFU/ml. The combinations of antibiotics in the wells were dispensed after 3 h of incubation. All the combinations were tested in triplicates.^{13,14} Further FIC Index was calculated using following equation: $\sum \text{FIC} = \text{FIC}(\text{A}) + \text{FIC}(\text{B})$ where $\text{FIC}(\text{A}) = (\text{MIC A in presence of B} / \text{MIC A alone})$ and $\text{FIC}(\text{B}) = (\text{MIC B in the presence of A} / \text{MIC B alone})$. Correlation between FIC and the effect of the combination of antibacterial agents was indicated: Synergy ≤ 0.5 , Partial synergy $> 0.5-1$, Indifference > 1 to < 2 and Antagonism ≥ 2 .¹⁵

2.4. Time kill assay

The time kill assay was used to ascertain the efficacy of kill of the bacteria in terms of reduction in the CFU's. It was performed only in the cases exhibiting a synergistic or additive effect of the

RMA with the antibiotic by the checkerboard method. Miles and Misra plate count method¹⁶ was used to ascertain the bacterial count of different treatments. Briefly, the method comprised of withdrawing a 20 μl aliquot from each test sample under aseptic conditions using sterile tips at different time intervals viz. 0, 6, 12, 18 and 24 h. The aliquots were placed on a MH plate as a single drop and observed for the growth of bacteria as pin head colonies after incubation of 12–18 h at 37 °C. These were counted to arrive to CFU/ml of the test sets at different time intervals.

3. Results

3.1. Antimicrobial susceptibility by in vitro microbroth dilution method

The Minimal inhibitory concentration as per CLSI/EUCAST guidelines using *in vitro* microbroth dilution assay is defined as the lowest concentration of antibiotic that completely inhibits the growth of the microorganism by the naked eye. In the present study all the three model test microorganism's exhibited a MIC of 500 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ for Oxacillin. In case of Penicillin, *S. aureus* NCTC 6571, *S. aureus* MTCC737 and *S. aureus* MTCC 96 exhibited a MIC of 8000 $\mu\text{g/ml}$. Catechin gallate exhibited a MIC of 62.5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ for *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 and MTCC 96 while for MTCC 737 the MIC was 125 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ (Table 1).

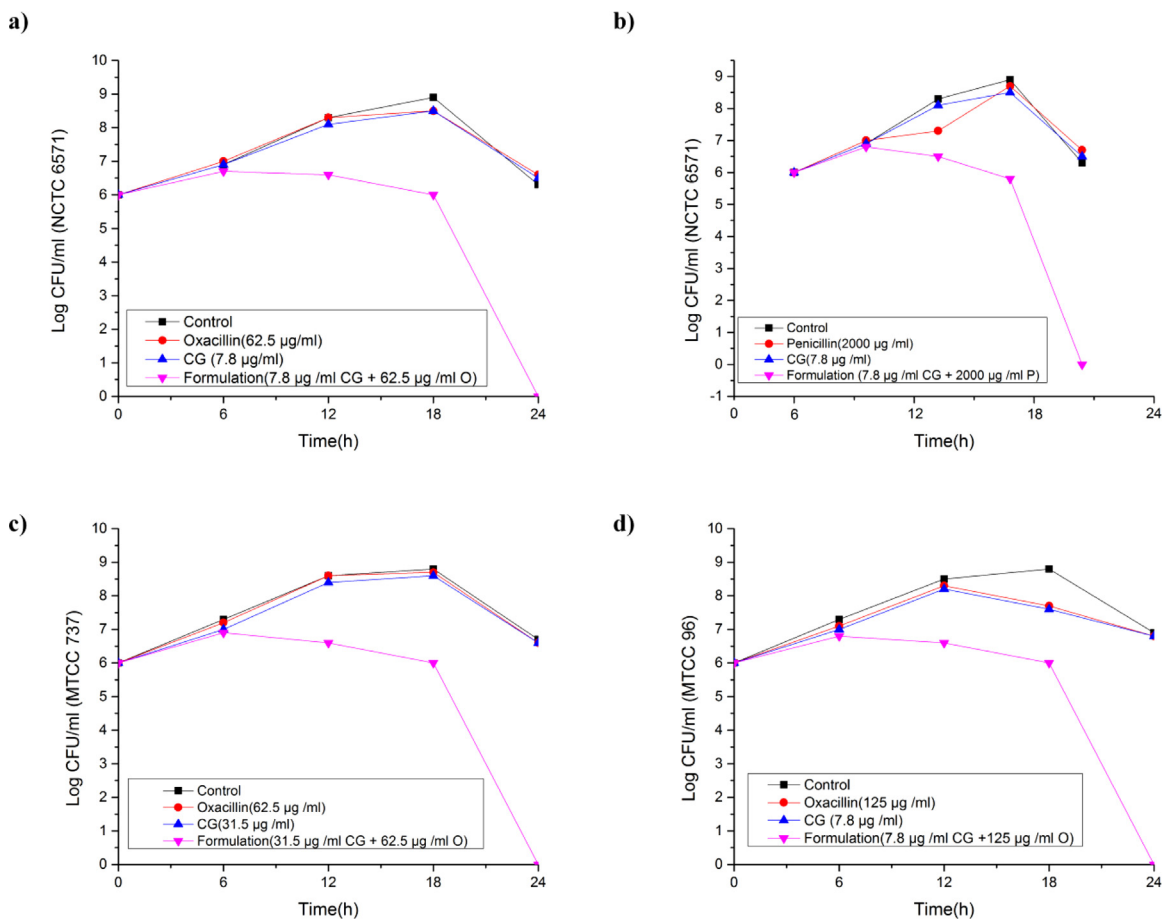


Fig. 1. Time Kill Kinetics of (a) *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 alone, with oxacillin, with CG and synergistic FIC combination of oxacillin and CG (7.8 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ /62.5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) (b) *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 alone, with penicillin, with CG and synergistic FIC combination of penicillin and CG (7.8/2000 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) (c) *S. aureus* MTCC 737 alone, with oxacillin, with CG and synergistic FIC combination of oxacillin and CG (31.25/62.5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) (d) *S. aureus* MTCC 96 alone, with oxacillin, with CG and synergistic FIC combination of oxacillin and CG (7.8/125 $\mu\text{g/ml}$).

3.2. Checkerboard assay and FIC index

Based on the checkerboard assay and FICI, it was found that (–)-Catechin gallate gave synergistic effect in Oxacillin as well as Penicillin when tested against *S. aureus* NCTC 6571, while *S. aureus* MTCC 737 and MTCC 96 exhibited enhanced susceptibility only in the case of synergistic combinations between (–)-Catechin gallate and oxacillin. Penicillin susceptibility was not increased in the case of MTCC 737 and MTCC96. (–)-Catechin gallate at a concentration of 7.8 µg/ml enhanced the susceptibility of Oxacillin and Penicillin by reducing the MIC by 8 folds and 4 folds respectively (Table 1). Similarly the MIC of Oxacillin was reduced by 8 folds and 4 folds against MTCC 737 and MTCC96 (Table 1). However Penicillin only exhibited partial synergy or indifference when tested in different combination with oxacillin in case of MTCC 737 and MTCC96.

3.3. Time kill assay of synergistic formulations

The time kill assay of synergistic formulations was carried out to see the extent of improvement in the susceptibility of the antibiotic by measuring the reduction in viable counts of the test bacteria. The combination of 7.8 µg/ml and 62.5 µg/ml of (–)-Catechin gallate and oxacillin respectively in NCTC 6571 exhibited an 8 fold reduction in MIC of oxacillin, which exhibited a 2- \log_{10} reduction in CFU at 12 h and 3- \log_{10} reduction at 18 h. However after 24 h it exhibited a 6- \log_{10} reduction in CFU count (Fig. 1a). The synergistic combination of (–)-Catechin gallate (7.8 µg/ml) and penicillin (2000 µg/ml) enhanced the susceptibility of *S. aureus* NCTC 6571 to penicillin by reducing the MIC by 4 folds. Further this combination induced a 2- \log_{10} reduction in CFU after 12 h and 3- \log_{10} reduction by 18 h and finally exhibited a 6.5- \log_{10} reduction after 24 h (Fig. 1b). However in case of *S. aureus* MTCC 737, 2 \log_{10} reduction in CFU was observed after 12 h when compared to the control. This further reduced to 3.2 \log_{10} CFU counts after 18 h and by 24 h it exhibited a 6.7 \log_{10} reduction in CFU count (Fig. 1c). While *S. aureus* MTCC96 exhibited a 2.1 \log_{10} reduction after 12 h approx. 3 \log_{10} reduction in CFU count after 18 h and 6.9 \log_{10} CFU reduction after 24 h (Fig. 1d).

4. Discussion

Antimicrobial drug resistance is a burgeoning problem due to the genomic plasticity of pathogenic microbes, in particular *Staphylococcus aureus* which rapidly develops mechanisms to evade the currently used armamentarium of antibiotics. Today *S. aureus*, more specifically MRSA (methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*) has been considered among the dreaded bacterial pathogens responsible for chronic infections in the hospital and community settings.⁴ Thus, there is an ongoing war between the clinicians and these superbugs to develop methods to overcome their resistance. Moreover finding a novel antimicrobial drug target and developing new antimicrobial molecules altogether is an expensive and time consuming process. Natural products have been a savior as they provide ample opportunities by interfering with these mechanisms which drug resistant bacteria develop to evade the antibiotics. Thus in the present study we explored the potential role of Catechin gallate (CG) as a possible synergist to potentiate the first generation β -lactam antibiotics like Penicillin and Oxacillin using standard cultures of *Staphylococcus aureus*. The selection was based on our previous work wherein we screened the molecules which could inhibit the *FemA* protein of *S. aureus*, which plays a critical role in formation of interglycine linkages during the bacterial cell wall formation apart from being implicated to be highly expressed in MRSA and its multidrug variants.^{8,10}

Epicatechin and Epicatechin gallate have been found to abrogate β -lactam resistance in MRSA by different mechanisms,

predominantly affecting the cell wall architecture of *S. aureus* by getting intercalated.^{17,18} Majority of the studies carried till date has been focused on Epicatechin and gallates of Epicatechin as main flavonoids involved in drug resistance reversal. However, only few studies have been undertaken on the antimicrobial or drug resistance reversal properties of Catechin. Catechin hydrate has been previously reported to inhibit urease enzyme in *Staphylococcus saprophyticus*, hence it was evaluated for its antimicrobial/resistance modifying potential. However, it was proved that (+)-catechin was not an effective RMA for β -lactam antibiotics to overcome *S. aureus* though it effectively reversed the resistance of MRSA to Clindamycin and Erythromycin.¹⁹

5. Conclusion

Based on our previous docking studies we found (–)-Catechin Gallate as the best inhibitor of *FemA* protein. In this study it was also observed that (–)-Catechin gallate was effective in reducing the MIC of Oxacillin in a synergistic manner in the three standard *S. aureus* isolates tested. Significant reduction of 6 \log_{10} was observed in CFU count between 12 and 24 h as compared to control. Hence the present study holds a promise in further evaluating (–) Catechin gallate as a prospective candidate for overcoming resistance to first and second generation β -lactam antibiotics on more number of clinical isolates for its possible use as a resistance modifying agent. The *in vitro* MIC of the antibiotics as well as (–) Catechin Gallate can further be extrapolated by dose calculations which requires the establishing of the C_{max} value which is essentially the highest concentration in plasma and generally is the calculated a product of $MIC \times 2^{(dose/interval/half-life)}$. Further the dose can be calculated by using the formula $(C_{max} \cdot V_d)/F$ where V_d refers to the volume of distribution of the drug and F is the systematic availability. This would be helpful in carrying out the pre-clinical studies.

Conflicts of interest

The authors have none to declare.

Funding

This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

References

- Alharbi SA, Wainwright M, Alahmadi TA, Salleeh HB, Faden AA, Chinnathambi A. What if Fleming had not discovered Penicillin? *Saudi J Biol Sci.* 2014;21:289–293.
- Fischer JF, Meroueh SO, Mobashrey S. Bacterial resistance to β -lactam antibiotics: compelling opportunism, compelling opportunity. *Chem Rev.* 2005;105:395–424.
- Saxena S, Gomber C. Surmounting antimicrobial resistance in the Millennium Superbug: *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Open Med (previously Central European Journal of Medicine).* 2010;5(1):12–29.
- Lowy FD. Antimicrobial resistance, the example of *Staphylococcus aureus*. *J Clin Invest.* 2003;111:1265–1273.
- Abreu AC, MCBainb AJ, Sineos M. Plant as sources of antimicrobials and resistance modifying agents. *Nat Prod Rep.* 2012;29:1007–1021.
- Geddes AM, Klugman KP, Rolinson GN. Introduction: historical perspective and development of Amoxicillin/Clavulanate. *Int J Antimicrob Agents.* 2007;30:109–112.
- Rossolini GM. Acquired metallo- β -lactamase an increasing clinical threat. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2005;41:1557–1558.
- Li X, Xiong Y, Fax X, Feng P, Tang H, Zhou T. The role of *femA* regulating gene on methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* clinical isolates. *Med Mal Infect.* 2012;42:218–225.
- Stapleton P, Shah S, Anderson J, Hara Y, Hamilton-Miller JMT, Taylor PW. Modulation of β -lactam resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus* by catechins and gallates. *Int J Antimicrob Agents.* 2004;23:462–465.
- Singhal D, Saxena S. Screening and toxicity analysis of catechin isomers against *femA* protein. *Indian J Pharm Sci.* 2015;77(6):758–763.

11. European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing (EUCAST). EUCAST Discussion Document E. Dis 5.1: Determination of minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs) of antibacterial agents by broth microdilution. *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2003;9(8):1–7.
12. Sato M, Tanaka H, Yamaguchi R, Kato K, Etoh H. Synergistic effects of mupirocin and an isoflavanone isolated from *Erythrina variegata* on growth and recovery of methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Int J Antimicrob Agents.* 2004;24:241–246.
13. Bajaksouzian S, Visalli MA, Jacobs MR, Appelbaum PC. Activities of levofloxacin, ofloxacin, and ciprofloxacin, alone and in combination with amikacin, against acinetobacter as determined by checkerboard and time-kill studies. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother.* 1997;41:1073–1076.
14. Orhan G, Bayram A, Zer Y, Balci I. Synergy tests by E-test and methods of antimicrobial combinations against *Brucella melitensis*. *J Clin Microbiol.* 2005;43:140–143.
15. Lee YS, Kang OH, Choi JG, et al. Synergistic effect of emodin in combination with ampicillin or oxacillin against methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Pharm Biol.* 2010;48(11):1285–1290.
16. Miles AA, Misra SS, Irwin JO. The estimation of the bactericidal power of the blood. *J Hyg.* 1938;38(06):732–749.
17. Taylor PW, Hamilton Miller JMT, Stapleton PD. Antimicrobial properties of green tea catechins. *Food Sci Technol Bull.* 2005;2:71–81.
18. Taylor PW. Alternative natural sources for generation of new antibacterial agents. *Int J Antimicrob Agents.* 2013;42(3):195–201.
19. Miiklasinska M, Kepa M, Wojtyczka RD, Idzik D, Dzeidzic A, Wasik TJ. Catechin hydrate augments the antibacterial action of selected antibiotics against *Staphylococcus aureus* clinical strains. *Molecules.* 2016;21:244–256.

Comparative Analysis of Active Site Prediction Tools for *FemA* Protein

Divya Singhal¹, Sanjai Saxena²

^{1,2} Department of Biotechnology,

Thapar Institute of Engineering and Technology, Patiala

divysinghal@gmail.com

Fem proteins are the essential proteins of peptidoglycan layer of gram-positive bacteria. They are responsible for crosslinking of peptide chains of different monomer units by forming a pentaglycineinterpeptide bridge by using glycyl t-RNA as Gly donor. These peptidyltransferases are of three kinds namely *FemA*, *FemB* and *FemX*. *FemX* uses lipid II exclusively as acceptor for the first Gly residue. While addition of second & third Gly was catalyzed by *FemA* and fourth, fifth Gly by *FemB*, and both enzymes were specific for lipid II-Gly(1) and lipid II-Gly(3) as acceptors. Crystallographic structure of only *FemA* protein is available till date. Identification of active site is essential for inhibiting the function of protein. In this study various computational tools were used to calculate the active site of *FemA* protein. But no good correlation was found among these computational tools.

Keywords: Fem, gram-positive, active site



N.C. COLLEGE OF ENGINEERING, ISRANA

(An Autonomous College Approved by UGC since 2013)

AICTE Sponsored International Conference
On "Recent Innovations in Engineering"

Certificate

This is to certify that Dr./Mr./Ms. [✓].....*Divya Singh*.....of *Thapar Institute*.....

of Engg. & Tech., Patiala presented a research paper on *Comparative Analysis of Active Site*.....in
Prediction Tools for FcγR1 Protein

AICTE Sponsored International Conference on "Recent Innovations in Engineering" held at N.C. College of
Engineering, Israna, Panipat On 30-31 Mar 2018.

Arjuna Kaur
Convener

D.S.
Director General & Advisor