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Discovery of a quorum sensing inhibitor of drug resistant staphylococcal infections by structure-based virtual screening

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List of non-standard abbreviations:

Available Chemicals Database (ACD),

Agr autoinducing peptide (AIP)

Colony forming unit (CFU)

Luria broth (LB)

Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA)
Methicillin-sensitive *Staphylococcus aureus* (MSSA)
Methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus epidermidis* (MRSE)
Methicillin-sensitive *Staphylococcus epidermidis* (MSSE)
Minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC)
Optical density (OD)
Phosphate buffered saline (PBS)
Quorum sensing (QS)
RNAIII activating protein (RAP)
RNAIII inhibiting peptide (RIP)
Staphylococcus aureus (*S. aureus*)
Staphylococcus epidermidis (*S. epidermidis*)
Staphylococcus quorum sensing (SQS)
Target of RAP (TRAP)
Tryptic soy broth (TSB)
Tumor necrosis factor (TNF)
Vancomycin- Intermediate resistant *S. aureus* (VISA)
Vancomycin- Intermediate resistant *S. epidermidis* (VISE)
Vancomycin-resistant *S. aureus* (VRSA)

ABSTRACT

Staphylococci are a major health threat due to increasing resistance to antibiotics. An alternative to antibiotic treatment is preventing virulence by inhibition of bacterial cell-to-cell communication using the quorum sensing inhibitor RNAIII-inhibiting peptide (RIP). In this work we identified hamamelitannin as a nonpeptide analog of RIP by virtual screening of a RIP-based pharmacophore against a database of commercially available small-molecule compounds. Hamamelitannin is a natural product found in the bark of witch hazel, has no effect on staphylococcal growth *in vitro*, but like RIP, it does inhibit the quorum-sensing regulator RNAIII. In a rat graft model hamamelitannin prevented device-associated infections *in vivo*, including infections caused by methicillin resistant *S. aureus* and *S. epidermidis* (MRSA, MRSE) strains. These findings suggest that hamamelitannin may be used as a suppressor to staphylococcal infections.

INTRODUCTION

Staphylococcus aureus and *S. epidermidis* are among the most important pathogens of nosocomial infections, causing over 70,000 deaths per year in the US. Nearly all *S. aureus* strains are resistant to penicillin and many are resistant to methicillin-related drugs (MRSA strains). Lately cases of intermediate or complete resistance to vancomycin, for many years the only uniformly effective treatment, have emerged (VISA/VRSA strains) (Furuya and Lowy, 2006; Lowy, 1998; Lowy, 2003). Staphylococci are also a common cause of infections related to bacterial biofilm formation on implanted devices. Infections may result in longer hospitalization time, need of surgery and can even cause death (Costerton et al., 1999). Biofilms are highly resistant to antibiotic treatment (Costerton et al., 2005; Costerton et al., 1999; Donlan and Costerton, 2002; Stewart and Costerton, 2001; Stoodley et al., 2002). The spread of drug-resistant strains of staphylococci and the ineffectiveness of treatments in cases of biofilm-related infections underscores the necessity to find new modes of prevention and effective alternatives to antibiotic treatment. A novel way would be to interfere with bacterial cell-to-cell communication that leads to virulence.

S. aureus cause disease through the production of virulence factors

S. aureus are part of our normal flora, but can cause fatal diseases due to the expression of multiple virulence factors. These include adhesins, exotoxins, enterotoxins, hemolysins, leukocidin, as well as proteases that enable the bacteria to spread within the host (Balaban and Rasooly, 2000; Hong-Geller and Gupta, 2003; Lowy, 1998). Strains defective in their ability to form a biofilm or produce toxins show diminished virulence (Gov et al., 2004), suggesting that a

novel approach for therapy development would be to interfere with the production of virulence factors.

Regulation of virulence through quorum sensing mechanisms

Quorum sensing (QS) refers to the molecular mechanism of regulation of gene expression in response to fluctuations in cell density (March and Bentley, 2004). Bacteria produce and release QS signaling molecules called autoinducers. The concentration of the autoinducers increases as a function of cell density, leading to distinct patterns of gene expression often regulated by phosphorylation. Two quorum sensing systems that act in tandem have been described in staphylococci (SQS1 and SQS2) (Korem et al., 2005) and in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (Waters and Bassler, 2005). SQS1 consists of the autoinducer RNAIII-Activating Protein (RAP) and its target molecule TRAP (Balaban et al., 2001; Balaban et al., 1998; Balaban and Novick, 1995; Gov et al., 2004; Korem et al., 2005; Korem et al., 2003). SQS1 induces the activation of SQS2 (Balaban et al., 2001), which encompasses the products of the *agr* system and include the autoinducer peptide (AIP), its receptor AgrC (Lina et al., 1998), and a regulatory mRNA molecule (RNAIII) that induces toxin production (Gustafsson et al., 2004).

RAP is a 277-amino acid residue protein that activates the *agr* system by inducing the phosphorylation of TRAP. RAP is an ortholog of the 50S ribosomal protein L2 that is secreted by *S. aureus* (Balaban et al., 2001; Balaban et al., 1998; Balaban and Novick, 1995; Gov et al., 2004; Korem et al., 2005; Korem et al., 2003). This suggests that RAP has an extra-ribosomal activity in *S. aureus*. When RAP activity is inhibited by anti-RAP or anti-TRAP antibodies (Balaban et al., 1998; Yang et al., 2005), by RAP-binding peptides (Yang et al., 2003), or by the RNAIII-inhibiting peptide (RIP), virulence is inhibited (Balaban et al., 2000; Balaban et al.,

2003a; Balaban et al., 2003b; Balaban et al., 2005; Cirioni et al., 2003; Cirioni et al., 2006; Giacometti et al., 2003; Gov et al., 2001; Vieira-da-Motta et al., 2001).

TRAP is a membrane-associated 167-amino acid residue protein that is highly conserved amongst staphylococci. TRAP is hypothesized to be a sensor that is part of an unorthodox two-component signaling system. When TRAP is not expressed or not phosphorylated, the bacteria do not adhere, do not form a biofilm, do not express toxins, and do not cause disease. TRAP expression is constitutive, but its phosphorylation is regulated by RAP and reaches peak levels in the mid-exponential phase of growth (Balaban et al., 2001; Gov et al., 2004; Korem et al., 2005), followed by activation of *agr* and induction of SQS2 components. How TRAP regulates *agr* and/or virulence is under investigation (Shaw et al., 2007; Tsang et al., 2007; Adhikari et al., 2007) but seems to involve activation of the *ctsR* operon and ClpP production (Kiran et al in preparation) that regulate both DNA repair genes in addition to *agr* and virulence genes (Michel et al., 2006).

Inhibition of staphylococcal virulence by RIP

Virulence can be inhibited by the heptapeptide RIP (Balaban et al., 2000; Balaban et al., 2003a; Balaban et al., 2003b; Balaban and Rasooly, 2000; Cirioni et al., 2003; Cirioni et al., 2006; Giacometti et al., 2003; Gov et al., 2001; Lowy, 2003). RIP interferes with SQS1, thereby turning off downstream SQS2 as well, by competing with RAP to block TRAP phosphorylation and *agr* expression (Gov et al., 2004). This was also demonstrated in vitro, where RAP upregulated and RIP downregulated TRAP phosphorylation in vitro, in the absence of other cellular component (Kim, personal communication). The sequence of RIP (YSPWTNF-NH₂) is similar to the sequence of residues 4-9 of RAP (YK₄PITN). This suggests that RIP is structurally

similar to a segment of RAP and that RAP probably acts as an agonist and RIP as an antagonist to the same receptor (TRAP). Synthetic linear RIP has already been shown to prevent numerous types of *S. aureus* and *S. epidermidis* infections *in vivo*, including medical device associated infections (tested against MRSA, MRSE, VISA and VISE) (Balaban et al., 2001; Balaban et al., 2003b; Balaban et al., 2005; Cirioni et al., 2003; Cirioni et al., 2006; Giacometti et al., 2003; Gov et al., 2001; Korem et al., 2005; Lowy, 2003). These findings indicate that RIP can suppress virulence of any staphylococcal strain (Gov et al., 2004).

In this work, hamamelitannin has been discovered as a nonpeptide analog of RIP that effectively prevents biofilm formation and RNAIII *in vitro* as well as device-associated infections *in vivo*.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Bacteria: *In vivo* studies were carried out using a clinical isolate of methicillin-resistant *S. epidermidis* (MRSE) and methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* ATCC 43300 (MRSA). *In vitro* studies were carried out using *S. aureus* lab strain 8325-4, RN6390 containing *agr* P3-*blaZ* fusion plasmid pRN6683 (Novick et al., 1995). *S. epidermidis* clinical isolate strain MH (Robinson, 2005). Bacteria were grown in Luria broth (LB) or tryptic soy broth (TSB) at 37°C with shaking.

Model Building of the RIP peptide

A model of the three-dimensional structure of the heptapeptide RIP (YSPWTNF-NH₂) was built by homology to the crystal structure of residues 6-12 (YRPYTPS) of ribosomal protein L2 within the crystal structure of the 50S ribosomal subunit from *Deinococcus radiodurans* (Harms

et al., 2001). Program O (Jones et al., 1991) was used for this purpose on an Octane workstation (Silicon Graphics Inc.).

***In silico* Screening for RIP analogs**

Screening for small molecule nonpeptide analogs of RIP was carried out by a computer search with the ISIS software (Integrated Scientific Information System) from Elsevier MDL against the Available Chemicals Database (ACD), a library of 300,000 commercially available small molecule compounds. The principal modules of the ISIS software used in this work were ISIS/Host, ISIS/Base and ISIS/Draw. The screening was carried out on a PC under the Microsoft Windows 2000 operating system. Use of the ISIS software package required access to program ORACLE. The model of RIP served as the basis for the search. Our first approach was to carry out similarity searches with the RIP models against the ACD. As this search yielded only peptides it was abandoned. Next we turned to a search of the ACD based on a pharmacophore approach, in which queries were defined by a set of distance ranges between aromatic rings (the midpoint of the Tyr, Phe and Trp rings was used) and hydrogen bond donors or acceptors, based on the RIP model. Compounds with a molecular weight in excess of 1,000 Da and compounds deemed unsuitable for prophylaxis or therapy, such as dyes and fluorescent compounds, were eliminated from the list of candidate compounds. The coordinates of the top hits were converted from the internal MOL format to PDB format by program BABEL (OpenEye Scientific Software). The structures of the top hits were superimposed on the RIP model and viewed either with program SwissPDBViewer on a PC or with program O (Jones et al., 1991) on a Silicon Graphics Octane workstation.

RIP and hamamelitannin

RIP was synthesized in its amide form (YSPWTNF-NH₂) (Neosystem, France, >98% purity), was dissolved in water and stored at -70° C until use.

Hamamelitannin (2',5-di-O-galloyl-D-hamamelose) (Chromadex CA) was dissolved in water and stored at -70° C until use. Sample was tested by reverse phase chromatography to confirm activity at >99% purity.

Hamamelitannin derivative used as a control: 2-O-acetyl-1,3,5-tris-O-(2-methoxybenzoyl)-alpha-D-ribofuranose (Compound 2) (Sigma-Aldrich) was dissolved in DMSO and stored at -70° C until use.

Antibacterial activity assay

S. aureus strain 8325-4 were grown overnight in LB, diluted 1:100 in LB and grown to the early exponential phase of growth (OD_{595 nm} = 0.2). 100 µl LB containing 1000 freshly prepared bacteria were applied to sterile polystyrene 96-well plates (Falcon) together with RIP or hamamelitannin (0-125µg in 5µl water). Bacteria were grown for 24 hours at 37°C without shaking, and the optical density was determined at 595nm. Ampicillin (Sigma Aldrich) was used a control at 0.01-10µg

Bacterial attachment *in vitro*

Bacteria were grown overnight in LB, diluted 1:100 in LB and grown for about two more hrs to the early exponential phase of growth (OD_{595 nm} = 0.2). To test for cell attachment, 0.1 ml (equivalent to about 6x10⁷ bacteria) were placed in polystyrene 96 well plates (Falcon) with 5 µl water, RIP, hamamelitannin or Compound 2 or control 3% (final) DMSO. Cells were grown for

3 hrs without shaking at 37°C. (To ensure that the same number of cells was applied to the wells and to test for bacterial growth at the end of incubation time, cell density was determined before and at the end of the experiment by measuring the optical density at 595 nm). At the end of the 3 hr incubation, unbound cells were removed and gently washed x2 with PBS. Cells were air dried, fixed with 100% ethanol, dried and stained for 2 min with filtered 0.4% gentian violet diluted in 12% ethanol. Stain was removed, and wells were gently washed x5 with PBS. 100 µl 1% SDS was added to solubilize stained cells and the 96 well plate was read at OD 595 nm in an ELISA plate reader.

RNAIII and δ hemolysin production *in vitro*

Northern blotting and α β -lactamase transcriptional fusion was used as described (Korem et al., 2003) for the detection of *agr* activity, using the *agr* P3-*blaZ* fusion plasmid, pRN6683 in lab strain RN6390 (Ji et al., 1995), These *S. aureus* fusion cells (in their early exponential phase, 2×10^7 CFU in 30µl LB) were grown for 2.5 hrs at 37°C with increasing amounts of hamamelitannin or RIP or for 60 min with or without 5µg recombinant RAP (in 5µl buffer containing 50 mM Tris pH 8.0/150 mM NaCl/1 mM DTT/10% glycerol). β -lactamase activity was measured by adding the substrate nitrocefin (Calbiochem) (40µl of nitrocefin 132 µg/ml in 0.1M sodium phosphate buffer pH 5.8). OD was determined using a microtiter plate reader (Bio-Tek KC4) at 490/630 nm using the kinetic analysis mode and results expressed as mean or maximum slope (V mean or V max).

For testing RNAIII production by Northern blotting, cells (*S. aureus* lab strain 8325-4, MRSA USA300, and clinical *S. epidermidis* isolate strain MH) were freshly grown with shaking to the early exponential phase (3×10^8 CFU in 1ml LB). Cells were grown for 6 hrs in the

presence of 12 μ l water or 300 μ g hamamelitannin that were added at time 0 and 3 hrs. The cells were harvested by centrifugation at 8000g for 10 min. The cell pellet and supernatants (see below) were collected. From the cell pellet RNA was isolated and RNAlIII detected by northern blotting as described (Korem et al., 2003). As a loading control and to ensure that hamamelitannin is not a general transcriptional regulator, northern blots were also incubated with radiolabeled *traP* probe as described (Balaban et al., 2001).

For testing hemolysin production, the supernatants of MRSA+/- hamamelitannin were filtered through 0.22 micron filter, concentrated to 10x by evaporation, and 5 μ l applied on 20% SDS PAGE, western blotted and δ hemolysin detected using rabbit anti- δ hemolysin antibodies as described (Balaban and Novick, 1995). Equal loading was confirmed by ponceau S (Diasys Europe).

Rat graft *in vivo* infection

Sterile collagen-sealed double velour knitted polyethylene terephthalate (Dacron) grafts were utilized as medical devices in these experiments. Adult male Wistar rats (n=10) were randomized in control groups (no graft contamination), contaminated groups that did not receive any prophylaxis and treated groups that received hamamelitannin-coated grafts (local prophylaxis) or that received uncoated grafts but were challenged with bacteria + hamamelitannin. Rats were anesthetized with ether, the hair on the back shaved and the skin cleansed with 10% povidone-iodine solution. One subcutaneous pocket was made on each side of the median line by a 1.5 cm incision. Aseptically, 1-cm² sterile Dacron grafts were implanted into the pockets. Before implantation, the Dacron graft segments were soaked for 1 hr in different concentrations of hamamelitannin or saline. The pockets were closed by means of skin clips and saline (1 ml)

containing the staphylococcal strains at a concentration of 2×10^7 CFU/ml (+/- hamamelitannin) (grown in standard conditions to the mid exponential phase of growth) were inoculated on to the graft surface using a tuberculin syringe to create a subcutaneous fluid-filled pocket. The animals were returned to individual cages and thoroughly examined daily. All grafts were explanted 7 days following implantation. The explanted grafts were placed in sterile tubes, washed in sterile saline solution, placed in tubes containing 10 ml of phosphate-buffered saline solution and sonicated for 5 min to remove the adherent bacteria. Quantitation of viable bacteria was performed by serial dilutions (0.1 ml) of the bacterial suspension in 10 mM sodium HEPES buffer, pH 7.2, and culturing each dilution on blood agar plates. Colony-forming units (CFUs) were determined the next day. To summarize, in experiment 1 bacteria were preincubated with hamamelitannin for 30 min at room temperature (0, 0.5, 10, 20, 30 and 50 μ g hamamelitannin/ 2×10^7 bacteria in 150 μ l saline) and mixture used for challenge. In experiment 2 dacron grafts were soaked for 1 hr with hamamelitannin at concentrations of 0.5, 10, 20, 30 and 50 mg/L prior to implantation and challenge.

Statistical analysis

Quantitative culture results from all groups are presented as mean \pm standard deviation and the statistical comparisons between groups made using analysis of variance (ANOVA) on the log-transformed data with Tukey-Kramer Honestly Significant Difference Test. Significance was accepted when the *P* value was ≤ 0.05 .

RESULTS

Model building of the RIP peptide

Short peptides such as RIP do not have a fixed conformation in solution. However, the active conformation of RIP can be deduced from the corresponding sequence segment in RAP, since RIP competes with RAP (Korem et al., 2003) and the sequence of RIP (YSPWTNF) is similar to the sequence of residues 4-10 of RAP (YKPITNG). Consequently, we hypothesized that the structure of RIP is very similar to the corresponding segment in RAP. Building a model of RIP based on homology to RAP was thus entirely feasible. Since a crystal structure or a solution NMR structure of RAP is not available, we resorted to another source for homology model building of RIP, the crystal structure of ribosomal protein L2 from *Dienococcus radiodurans* (L2 Dr) which is available (PDB code 1NKW) (Harms et al., 2001). This protein has 61.9% sequence identity to RAP in 278 overlapping residues, ensuring a close structural relationship between L2 Dr and RAP. The amino acid sequence of RIP and the corresponding segments in RAP and L2 Dr are YSPWTNF, YKPITNG and YRPYTNS, respectively. Positions 1, 3, and 5 in RIP are entirely conserved, and in position 4 the sequence differences are conservative, i.e. an aromatic or aliphatic residue. RIP homologs with conservative amino acid replacements in positions 2 and 4 have been shown to retain their inhibitory activity (Gov et al., 2001; Vieira-da-Motta et al., 2001). A model of RIP was built based on the crystal structure of L2-Dr (PDB code 1NKW (Harms et al., 2001)). This homology-built model of RIP was subjected to energy minimization with program CNS (Brunger et al., 1998) (Figure 1).

Definition of a pharmacophore for a RIP analog

The basis for the pharmacophore design was the RIP model. The pharmacophore was defined in terms of distances in the RIP model between pairs of aromatic moieties, distances between aromatic moieties and hydrogen donors or acceptors and distances between pairs of hydrogen bond donors/acceptors. Different pharmacophores were used in the search for a suitable RIP analog. The search results were filtered to eliminate compounds that are obviously to be avoided, such as dyes (like Chlorazol Fast Pink and Direct Black). Figure 2 shows the pharmacophore that led to the discovery of hamamelitannin as a small-molecule nonpeptide RIP analog. This was the top-ranking compound in the search with this pharmacophore (Figure 3).

Effects of hamamelitannin on bacterial growth, RNAPIII production and cell attachment in vitro

The effects of hamamelitannin in vitro were initially tested on available lab strains and later confirmed on drug resistant strains. The effects of hamamelitannin that are shown below were essentially identical on any staphylococcal strain tested so far.

Hamamelitannin does not affect bacterial growth *in vitro*

To test if hamamelitannin has antibacterial activity, 1000 Colony-Forming Units (CFU) of *S. aureus* were grown for 24 hrs with 0-125µg hamamelitannin in a final volume of 100 µL (up to 2.5mM). As shown in Figure 4, even at highest concentration, hamamelitannin or RIP had no effect on bacterial growth. RIP and hamamelitannin were also tested for their effect on growth of multiple strains of *S. aureus* and *S. epidermidis*, and no effect on growth was ever observed in vitro (tested on MRSA, VISA, MRSE, and VISE). In this context it is noteworthy that the

minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) of antibiotics like ampicillin against *S. aureus* 8325-4 is 0.1 µg/ml (0.2 µM). Thus, hamamelitannin at a concentration as high as 12,500 times the MIC of ampicillin does not inhibit cell growth. In conclusion, hamamelitannin (or RIP) cannot be considered a conventional antibiotic.

Hamamelitannin competes with RAP and inhibits RNAIII and δ hemolysin production *in vitro*

To test if hamamelitannin is a quorum sensing inhibitor and thus suppresses *agr* activity, 2×10^7 cells containing *mairi::blaZ* fusion construct (reporter cells) were incubated with increasing amounts (0-50µg) of hamamelitannin or RIP. RNAIII levels were measured as β -lactamase activity as a reporter gene product by the addition of nitrocefin as substrate. As shown in Figure 5A, both hamamelitannin and RIP inhibit RNAIII production in a concentration dependent manner, and are most effective at concentrations $> 7 \mu\text{g} / 10^7$ bacteria ($\sim 5 \text{ nM} / 10^3$ bacteria). Reporter cells were also grown in the presence of 5µg recombinant RAP and Hamamelitannin, (25 and 50µg) and tested for RNAIII production 60 min later. As shown in Fig. 5B, recombinant RAP significantly ($p < 0.05$) upregulated RNAIII production and 50µg Hamamelitannin significantly ($P < 0.01$) competed with RAP and downregulated RNAIII production. Of note is the fact that native RAP was also expected to be present as it is continuously produced by the cells (Korem et al., 2003). To test for the effect of Hamamelitannin on RNAIII production in other strains, *S. aureus* MRSA strain USA300 and clinical isolate *S. epidermidis* strain MH were grown with Hamamelitannin for 6 hrs and RNAIII tested by northern blotting. As shown in Fig. 5C, Hamamelitannin reduced RNAIII production in all strains tested. Hamamelitannin had no effect on the transcription of *traP* that is known to be constitutively expressed (Balaban et al.,

2001) and used here as a control. Additionally, the effect of hamamelitannin on hemolysin production was tested by western blotting as described (Balaban and Novick 1995), as shown in Fig. 5C; the amount of δ hemolysin produced in the presence of hamamelitannin was reduced.

Hamamelitannin inhibits cell attachment *in vitro*

To test for the effect of hamamelitannin on bacterial attachment *in vitro*, *S. aureus* cells were incubated with 0-50 μ g hamamelitannin or RIP in polystyrene plates for 3 hrs at 37^o C. Adherent bacteria were stained and OD determined. As shown in Figure 6A, hamamelitannin (or RIP) reduced cell attachment in a concentration-dependent manner and was most effective when $\sim 10^7$ bacteria were grown in 4 μ g hamamelitannin or RIP (~ 8 nM per 10^3 bacteria). Similar results were obtained with MRSA and with *S. epidermidis* (data not shown). Hamamelitannin derivative 2-0-acetyl-1,3,5-tris-0-(2-methoxybenzoyl)-alpha-D-ribofuranose (Compound 2) had no effect on bacterial attachment, suggesting that the effects we observed of hamamelitannin on cell adhesion were specific. Hamamelitannin also inhibits attachment of *S. epidermidis*, as shown in Figure 6B. Of note is that attachment experiments were carried out over a short period of time (several hours) instead of biofilm studies carried out for days because over time the amount of RAP expressed by the cell (Korem et al., 2003) can compete out the inhibitory effect of RIP or hamamelitannin, unless an immune response had reduced the number of bacteria in the intervening time frame.

Coating with hamamelitannin prevents device-associated infections *in vivo*

To measure the amount of hamamelitannin necessary to prevent device-associated infections, bacteria (2×10^7 MRSA or MRSE) were pre-incubated with increasing amounts of

hamamelitannin for 30 min at room temperature. Grafts were implanted and rats were challenged with the pre-incubated bacteria. Seven days later the graft was removed and bacterial load determined. As shown in Figure 7A, while bacterial load in the control untreated group was $\sim 10^7$ CFU/ml, bacterial load on the graft decreased with increasing dose of hamamelitannin. No bacteria was found when either bacteria (MRSA or MRSE) were pre-incubated with $>20\mu\text{g}$ hamamelitannin, comparable to results obtained previously with RIP (Balaban et al., 2005).

In a parallel experiment grafts were soaked for 1 hr in increasing hamamelitannin concentrations. The grafts were subsequently implanted into the animal, and bacteria injected onto the graft. Seven days later the graft was removed and bacteria on the graft counted. As shown in Figure 7B for both MRSA and MRSE a significant ($p < 0.05$) decrease in bacterial load was found when the grafts were presoaked with increasing concentrations of hamamelitannin while untreated control groups demonstrated evidence of graft infections with quantitative culture results showing $\sim 10^7$ CFU/ml. Grafts soaked in 30mg/L hamamelitannin showed no sign of bacterial load.

DISCUSSION

In this work we have demonstrated the potential of a new way to inhibit staphylococcal infections. Instead of killing the bacteria, as is done with antibiotics, staphylococci are rendered harmless by inhibiting their quorum sensing mechanisms. We have previously shown that the peptide RIP acts as an inhibitor of quorum sensing (summarized in Balaban et al., 2005). In this work we have shown that hamamelitannin can prevent staphylococcal infections in a way analogous to RIP.

Hamamelitannin (2,5-di-O-galloyl-D-hamamelose) is the ester of D-hamamelose (2-hydroxymethyl-D-ribose) with two molecules of gallic acid (Figure 3). Since gallic acid contains three phenolic functional groups, hamamelitannin is considered a polyphenol, which have been shown to have multiple activities (see below). Hamamelitannin belongs to the family of tannins, which are plant polyphenols that are used in tanning animal hides into leather.

Hamamelitannin is a natural product found in the bark and the leaves of *Hamamelis virginiana* (witch hazel), a deciduous shrub native to damp woods in eastern North America and Canada. The concentration of hamamelitannin in the bark is 5% and in the leaves is less than 0.04% (w/w) (Wang et al., 2003). Witch hazel extracts were used by Native Americans for pain relief, colds and fever, and they are nowadays used in skin care products and in dermatological treatment of sun burn, irritated skin, atopic eczema (Korting et al., 1995) as well as to promote wound healing via anti-inflammatory effects (Korting et al., 1993). Hamamelitannin also was shown to inhibit tumor necrosis factor α - mediated endothelial cell death at concentrations less than 100 μ M (Habtemariam, 2002). Hamamelitannin, at a minimum concentration of 50 μ M,

was also found to have a high protective activity against cell damage induced by peroxides (Masaki et al., 1995a) or UVB radiation (Masaki et al., 1995b). In addition, some antibacterial properties of witch hazel have been reported, where aqueous extracts of the bark or the leaves inhibited the growth of *E. coli*, *S. aureus*, *B. subtilis* and *E. faecalis* (Brantner and Grein, 1994). In contrast, we have determined that hamamelitannin has no effect on bacterial growth *in vitro* even at concentrations as high as 2.5 mM per 1000 bacteria, 13,000 times the MIC of ampicillin to the same *S. aureus* strain (0.2 μ M per 1000 bacteria). Hamamelitannin derivative 2-O-acetyl-1,3,5-tris-O-(2-methoxybenzoyl)- α -D-ribofuranose (Compound 2) had no effect on bacterial attachment, suggesting that the effect of hamamelitannin was specific. Of note is that hamamelitannin that was purchased from Chromadex at >93% purity was re-purified by high pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC, C18 reverse phase Thermo Hypersil Gold) and shown to be as active at >99% purity.

It has been suggested (Otto et al., 1998) that RIP is an amphipathic peptide and thus may work by being a detergent. This is unlikely because neither RIP nor hamamelitannin have any impact on growth even at concentrations as high as 2.5 mM per 1000 bacteria, while a detergent activity would impact growth. Detergents would also exhibit toxicity against eukaryotic cells, which was not found in animals treated either with RIP or with hamamelitannin.

Hamamelitannin inhibits staphylococcal virulence by acting as a quorum sensing inhibitor. This was demonstrated by inhibition of RNAIII production, which is part of the *agr* quorum sensing system. Its effect on RNAIII is similar to that of RIP, and the minimal effective

concentration of hamamelitannin and RIP on RNAlIIII production in vitro was <10nM per 1000 bacteria.

Hamamelitannin (and RIP) also inhibit cell attachment in vitro at minimal effective concentration of <10nM per 1000 bacteria. This is interesting because the accepted view has been that *agr* upregulates the expression of genes encoding for toxins and downregulates the expression of genes encoding for cell surface proteins like Protein A and various adhesion molecules, leading to phase variation (Novick et al 1993). It was thus expected that any molecule that inhibits the *agr* would cause an increase in cell adhesion, and therefore disease (Vuong et al., 2003; Kong et al., 2006; Otto 2004, 2007, 2008). However, as shown by many in vivo studies carried out around the world (see below), *agr* inhibitors do in fact suppress diseases. While so many reports indicate that the anti-*agr* is a viable approach, one must consider the possibility that differences in technical approaches, types of disease (chronic or acute), or differences in strains may lead to the different views sometimes held. So far, inhibitors of *agr* were shown to suppress diseases like endocarditis (Cheung et al., 1994; Xiong et al., 2004), pneumonia (Heyer et al., 2002), Cellulitis/abscess/sepsis (Balaban et al 1998; Mayville et al 1999; Wright et al 2005; Gov et al 2001; Vieira-da-Motta et al, 2001; Park et al 2007) , mastitis, keratitis, sepsis, arthritis, osteomyelitis (Balaban et al., 2000), device associated infections (Balaban et al., 2003, 2005, 2007; Cirioni et al., 2003, 2006; Giacometti et al., 2003, 2005; Ghiselli et al., 2004, 2006; Dell'Acqua et al., 2004), and wound infections (Wolcott 2008).

In contrast to the multiple in vivo reports that show that inhibition of *agr* is a viable therapeutic approach, many reports show that when *agr* is directly inhibited, biofilm formation increases in vitro (see e.g, review by Kong et al., 2006). The fact that the in vitro reports do not

always mirror the *in vivo* findings may be due to difference in environmental conditions. In addition, the techniques used in biofilm studies *in vitro* vary and may lead to differences in results (as reviewed by Yarwood and Schlievert 2003). Interestingly, microarray analyses on *agr* mutants also do not show a distinct switch in gene expression, and while indeed protein A is upregulated in *agr* mutants, adhesion molecules are not distinctly upregulated, suggesting that phase variation is not strictly regulated by *agr* (Korem et al., 2005; Dunman et al., 2001; Beenken et al., 2004).

Unlike direct *agr* inhibitors that suppress disease *in vivo* but enhance biofilm formation *in vitro*, both RIP and hamamelitannin downregulate both *agr* expression and biofilm formation. Our working hypothesis is that this is because both molecules are expected to affect cellular processes upstream of *agr*. For example, RIP has been shown to downregulate TRAP phosphorylation, leading to upregulation of *ctsR/clpC*, leading to repression of *clpP*, which in turn leads to downregulation of virulence, oxidative stress and DNA repair (Derre et al., 1999; Michel et al., 2006; Frees et al., 2004, 2005). Such cells are highly compromised in the host and as shown by the multiple *in vivo* studies, are nonpathogenic.

Most importantly, Hamamelitannin is an excellent inhibitor of device-associated infections *in vivo*. Inhibition of infection is concentration dependent. Grafts pre-soaked with 30 mg/L hamamelitannin, showed no signs of infection even though the animals were challenged with a high bacterial load of 2×10^7 CFU. These results are similar to those observed previously with RIP (e.g. Balaban et al., 2005). Device-associated infections are prevented by merely soaking a graft in the hamamelitannin solutions, suggesting that hamamelitannin can be used to coat medical devices to prevent staphylococcal infections, including those caused by drug resistant

strains MRSA and MRSE. These findings may have important and far-reaching benefits for the prevention and treatment of *S. aureus* and *S. epidermidis* infections.

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FOOTNOTE:

These authors contributed equally

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Legends for figures:

Figure 1: Homology-built model of RIP. Ball-and-stick representation of the RIP model. Note the amphiphilic nature of this peptide. Distances between the midpoints of the three aromatic rings as well as distances of hydrogen bond donors or acceptors to each of the three aromatic rings were utilized to define pharmacophores.

Figure 2: Definition of the pharmacophore that lead to the discovery of hamamelitannin as a RIP small-molecule nonpeptide analog. N,O denotes hydrogen bond donor or acceptor with either nitrogen or oxygen atom. The numbers above or below the straight lines are distance criteria used in the search in Å.

Figure 3: Structure of hamamelitannin (2,5-di-O-galloyl-D-hamamelose).

Figure 4: Hamamelitannin (Hama) has no effect on bacterial growth in vitro: *S. aureus* (1000 cells) were grown overnight at 37° C with increasing amounts of hamamelitannin or RIP. Bacterial density was determined at OD 595 nm.

Figure 5A. Hamamelitannin (Hama) inhibits RNAPIII production: 2×10^7 early exponential *S. aureus* cells containing *rnapiii::blaZ* fusion construct were grown for 2.5 hrs with increasing amounts of hamamelitannin or RIP. RNAPIII levels were determined as β -lactamase activity (reporter gene product) and denoted as V_{\max} .

Figure 5B. Hamamelitannin competes with RAP: *S. aureus* fusion cells (in their early exponential phase, 2×10^7 CFU in 30 μ l LB) were grown for 1 hr at 37°C with 5 μ g recombinant RAP+/- 25 μ g or 50 μ g hamamelitannin, RNAIII levels were determined for 10 min after substrate addition as β -lactamase activity and denoted as V_{mean} .

Figure 5C. RNAIII production by Northern blotting and hemolysin production by western blotting: 1ml cells (early exponential $\sim 10^8$ CFU *S. aureus* lab strain 8325-4, MRSA USA300, and clinical *S. epidermidis* isolate strain MH) were grown for 6 hrs in the presence of buffer control or 300 μ g/ml hamamelitannin added at time 0 and 3 hrs. The cells were harvested by centrifugation and cell pellet and supernatants were collected. From the cell pellet RNA was isolated and RNAIII and *traP* (as a control) were detected by northern blotting using radiolabeled specific probes.

For testing hemolysin production, the supernatants of MRSA+/- hamamelitannin were applied on 20% SDS PAGE, western blotted and δ hemolysin detected using rabbit anti- δ hemolysin antibodies. Equal loading was confirmed by staining.

Figure 6: Hamamelitannin (Hama) inhibits cell attachment *in vitro*: *S. aureus* 8325-4 (**A**) or *S. epidermidis* clinical isolate MH (**B**) were placed in polystyrene plates and incubated with increasing amounts of hamamelitannin or RIP for 3 hrs at 37°C without shaking. Attached cells were stained and OD_{595nm} determined.

Figure 7: Hamamelitannin inhibits infections *in vivo*: **A:** Bacteria (2×10^7 CFU) were incubated with hamamelitannin for 30 min before challenge. Seven days later the

graft was removed and the number of bacteria determined. *no detectable bacteria, suggesting <10 CFU/ml.

B: Grafts were pre-soaked with hamamelitannin, implanted, animals challenged with MRSE or MRSA (2×10^7 CFU), and seven days later grafts were removed and number of bacteria determined. *no detectable bacteria, suggesting <10 CFU/ml.

Figure 1

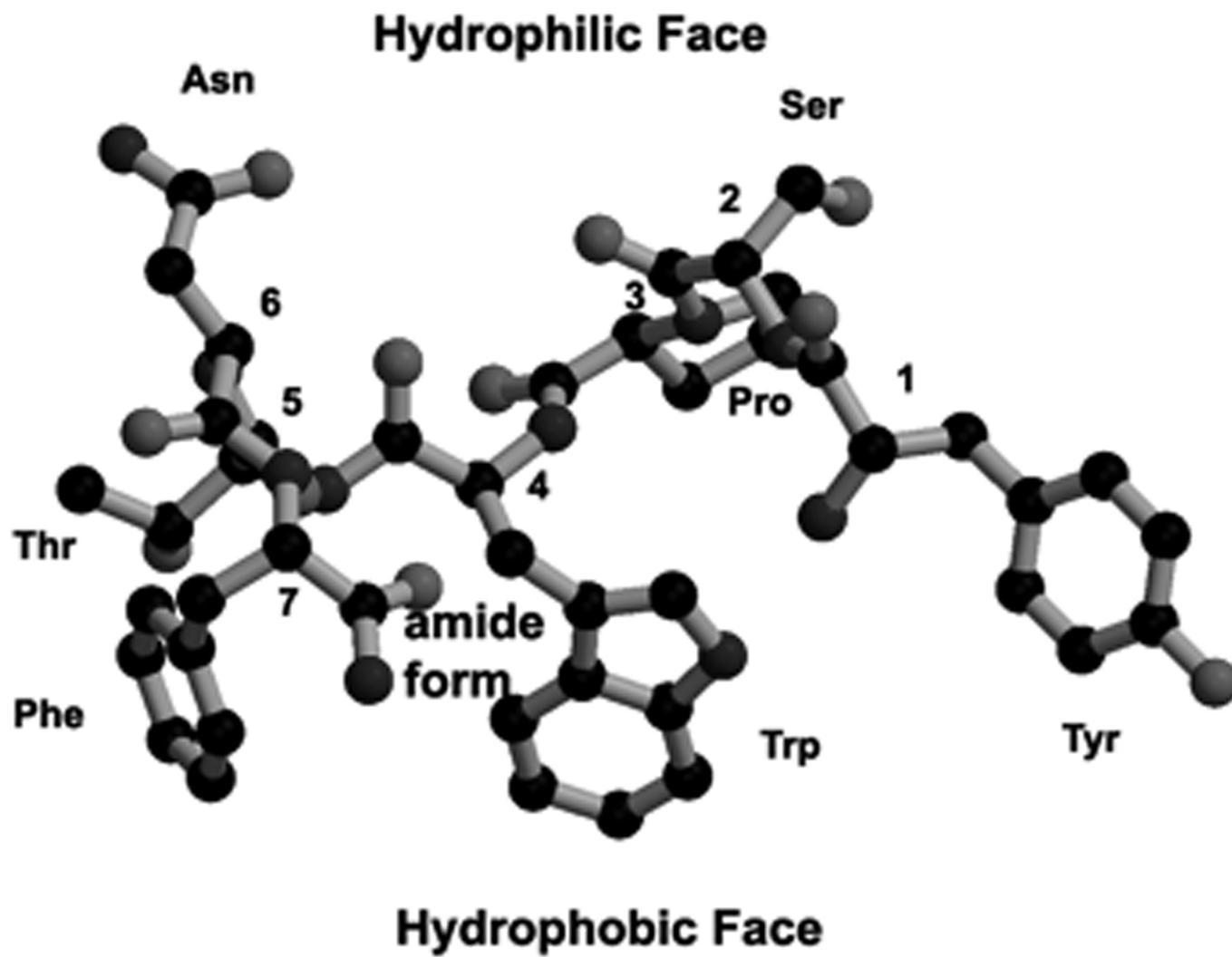


Figure 2

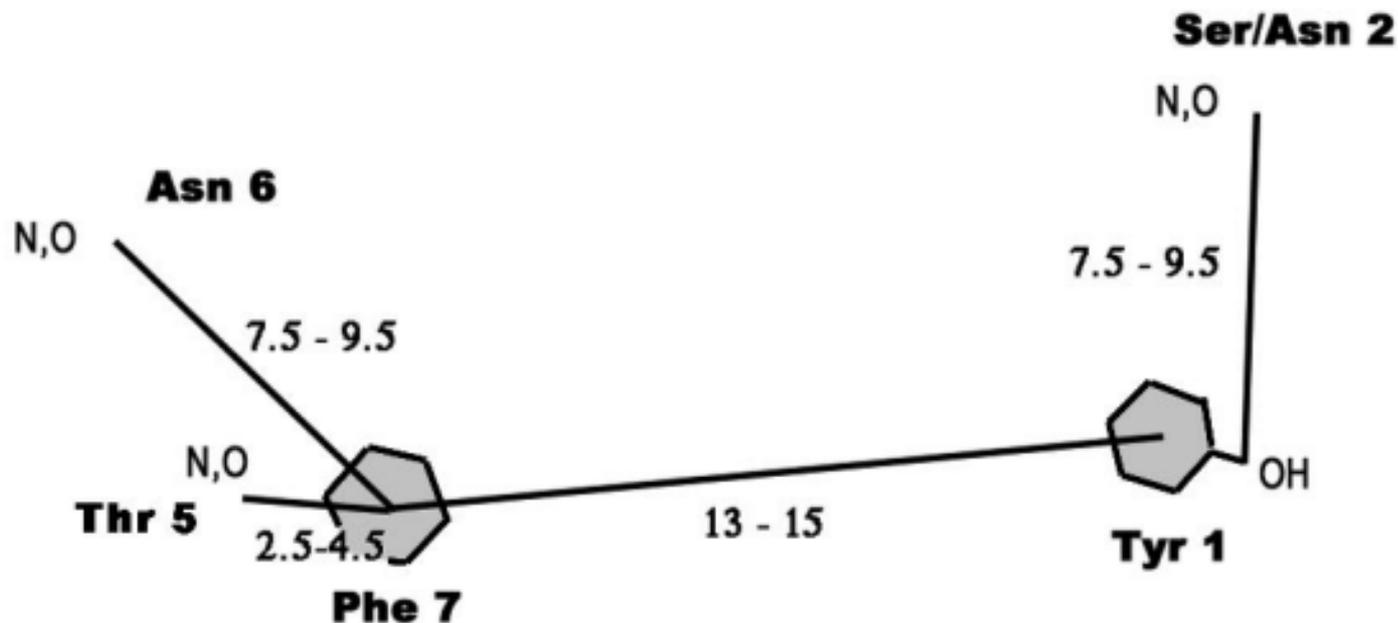


Figure 3

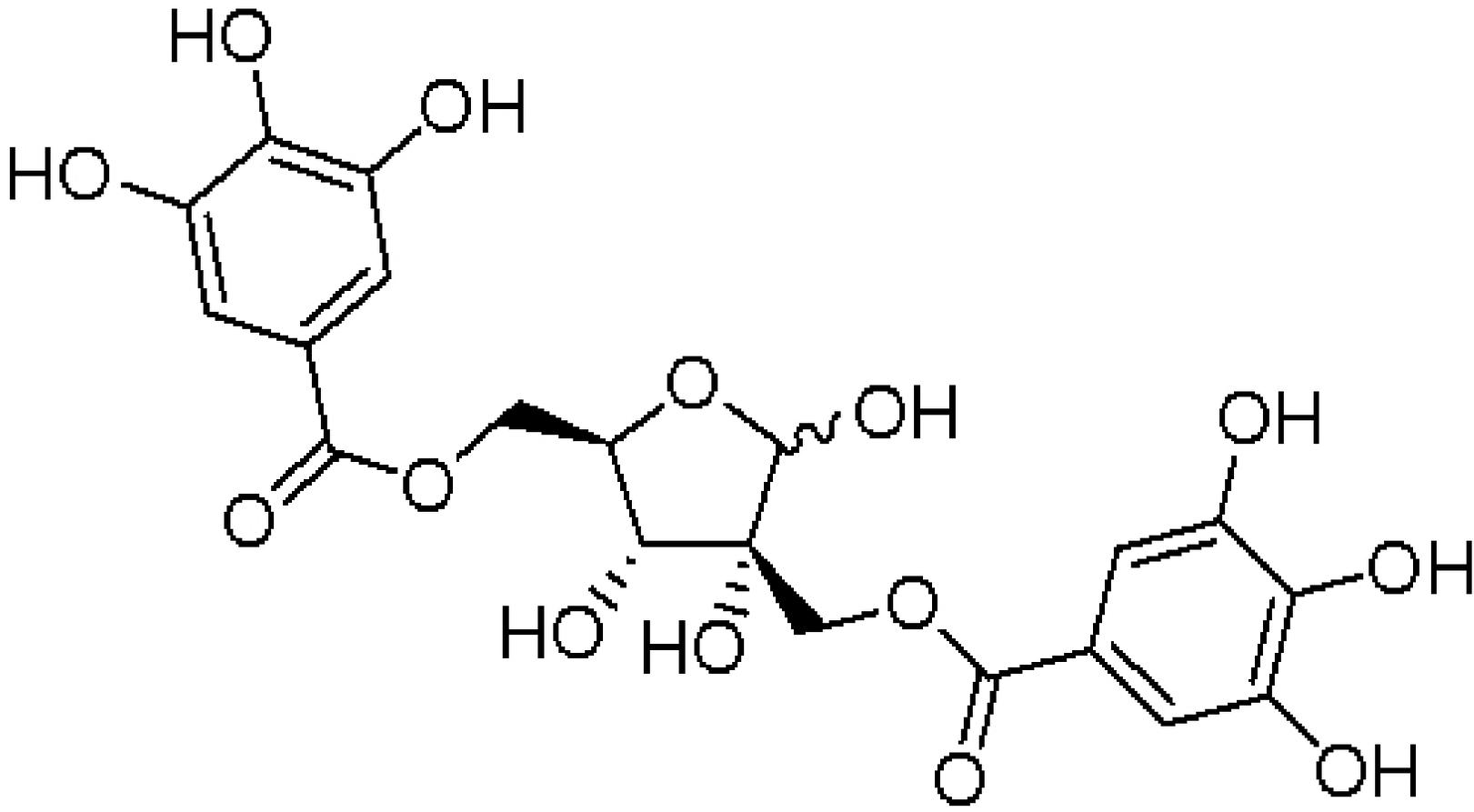


Figure 4

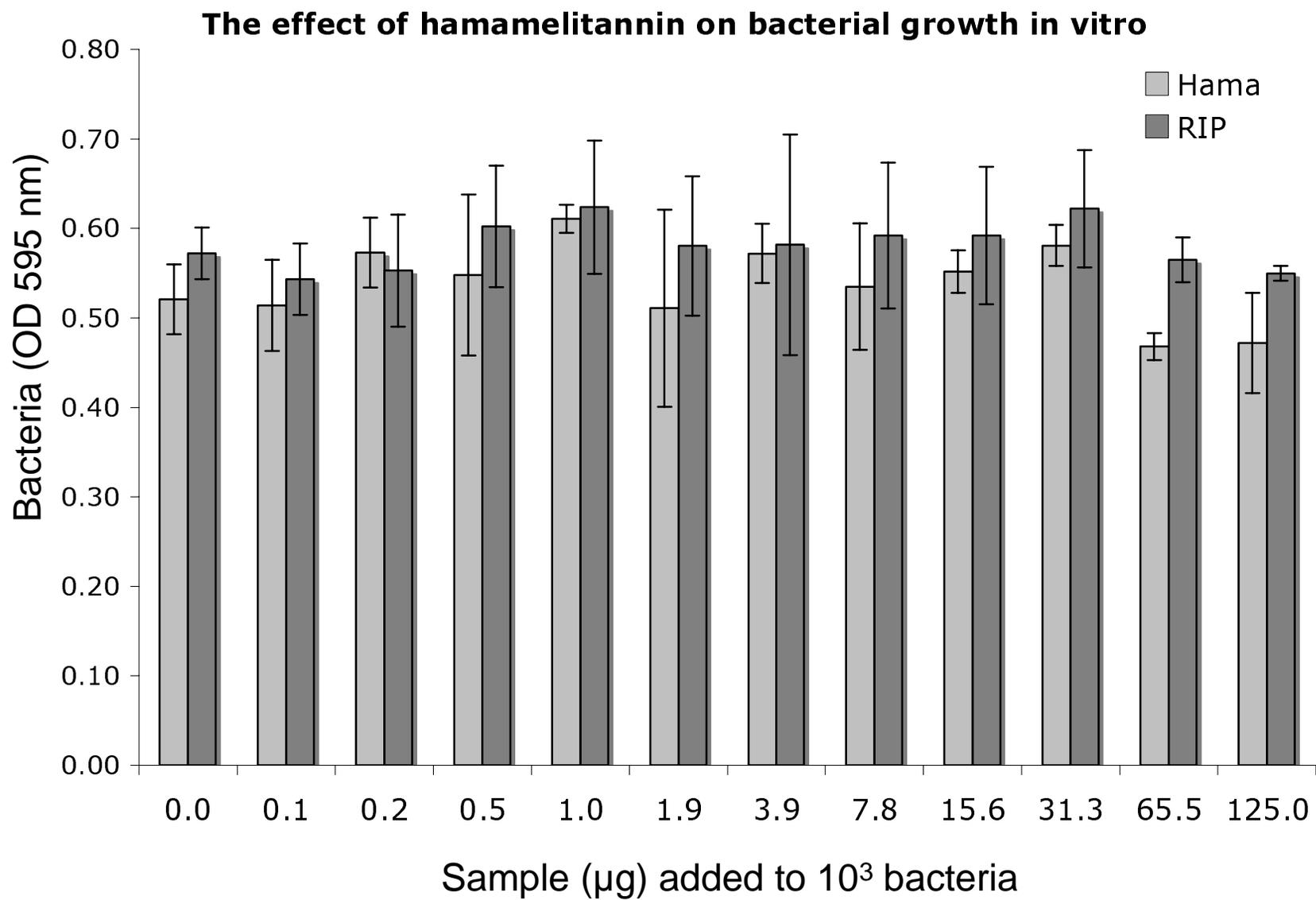


Figure 5A

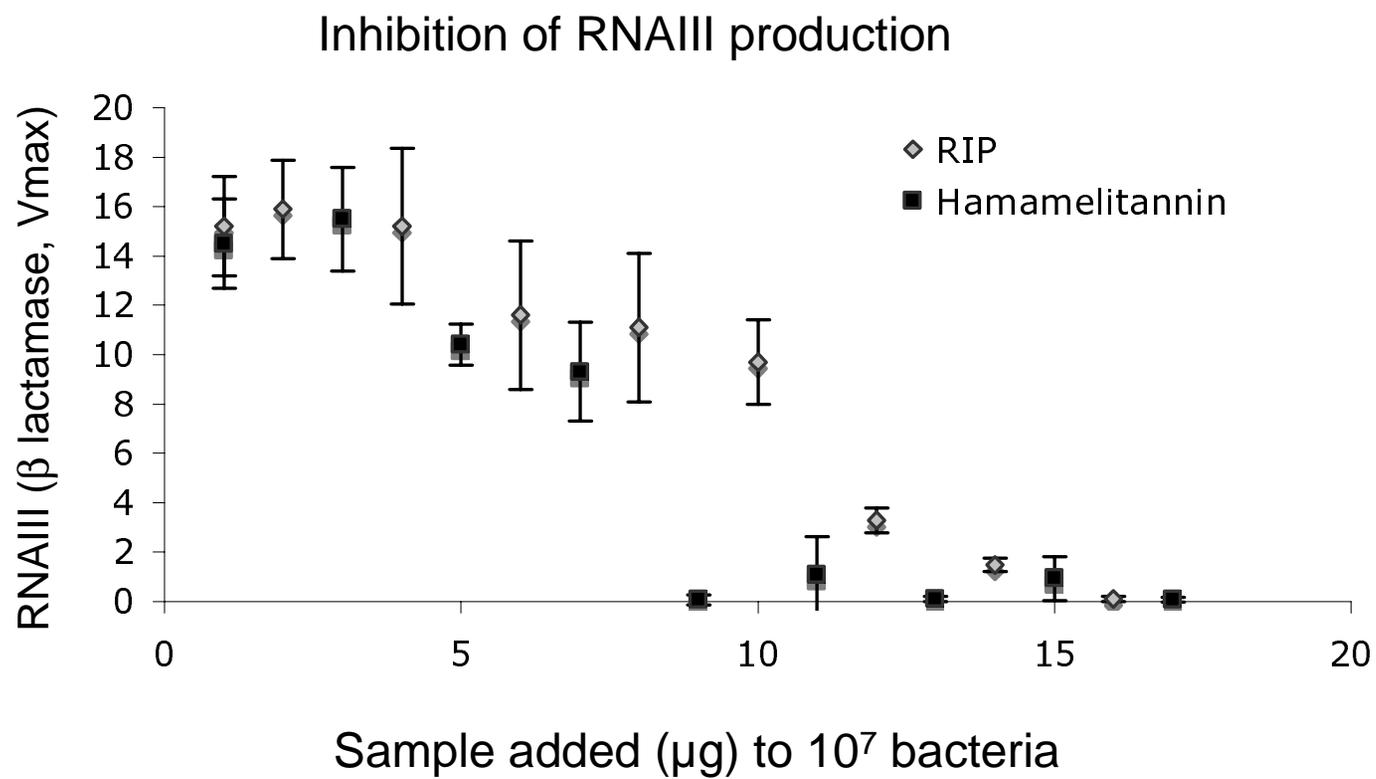


Figure 5B

Competition with RAP on activation of RNAIII production

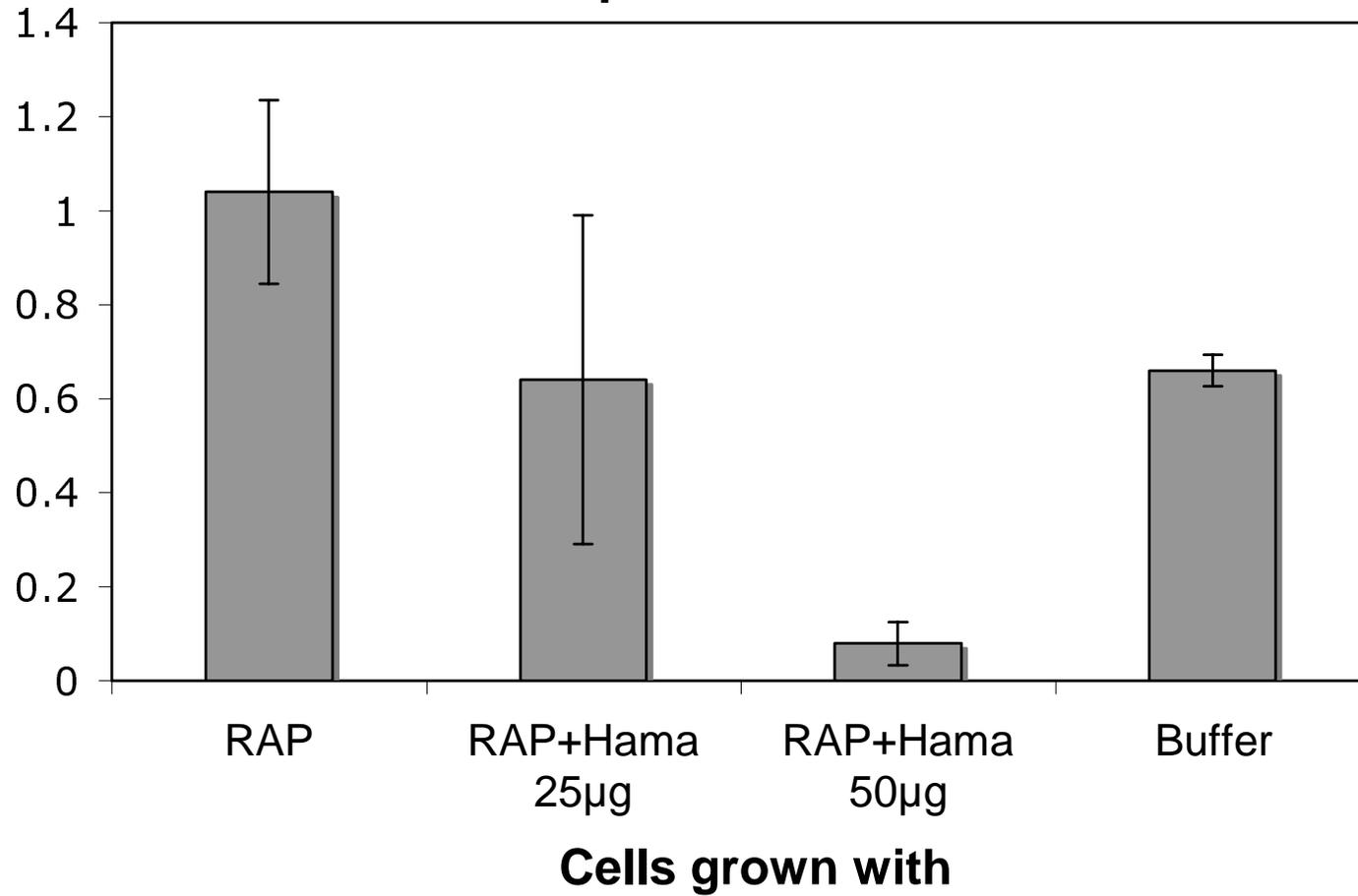


Figure 5C

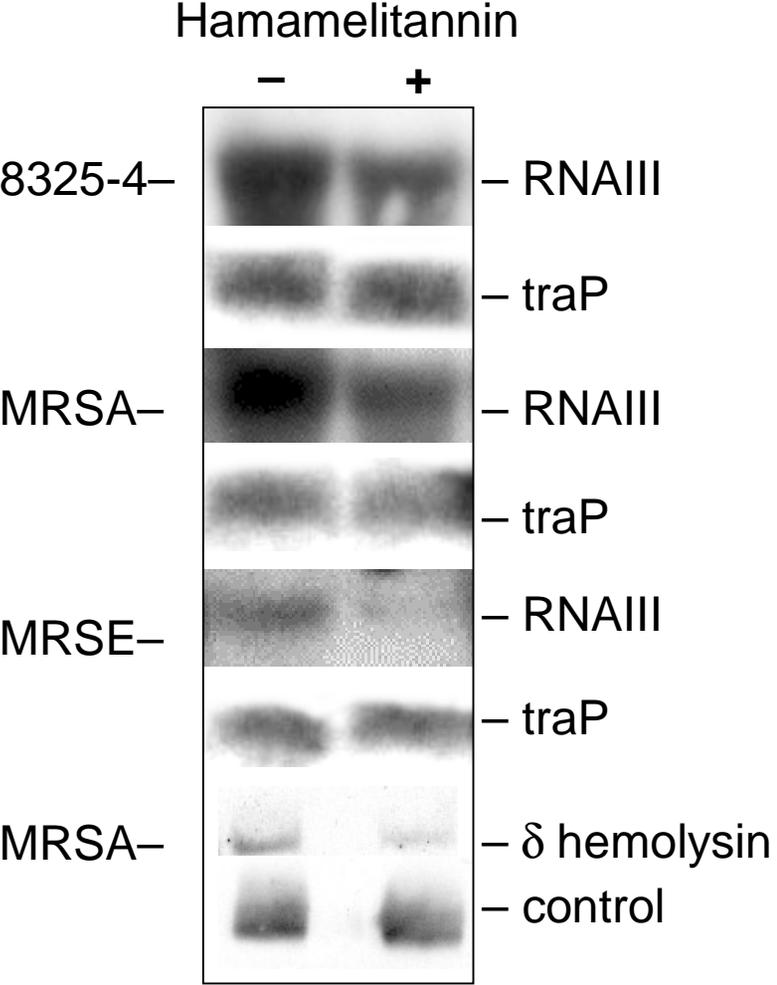


Figure 6A

The effect of hamamelitannin on *S. aureus* attachment to polystyrene in vitro

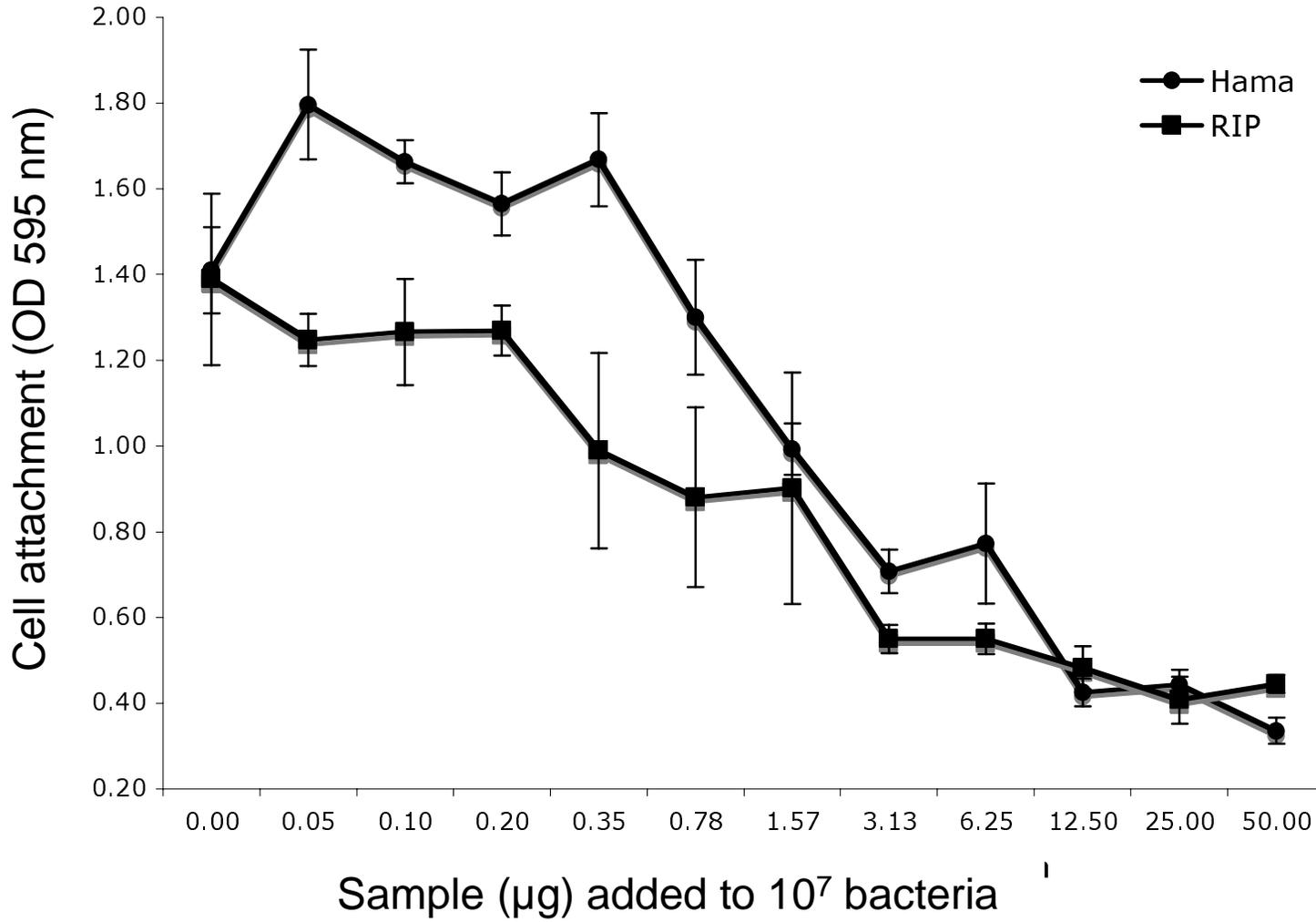


Figure 6B

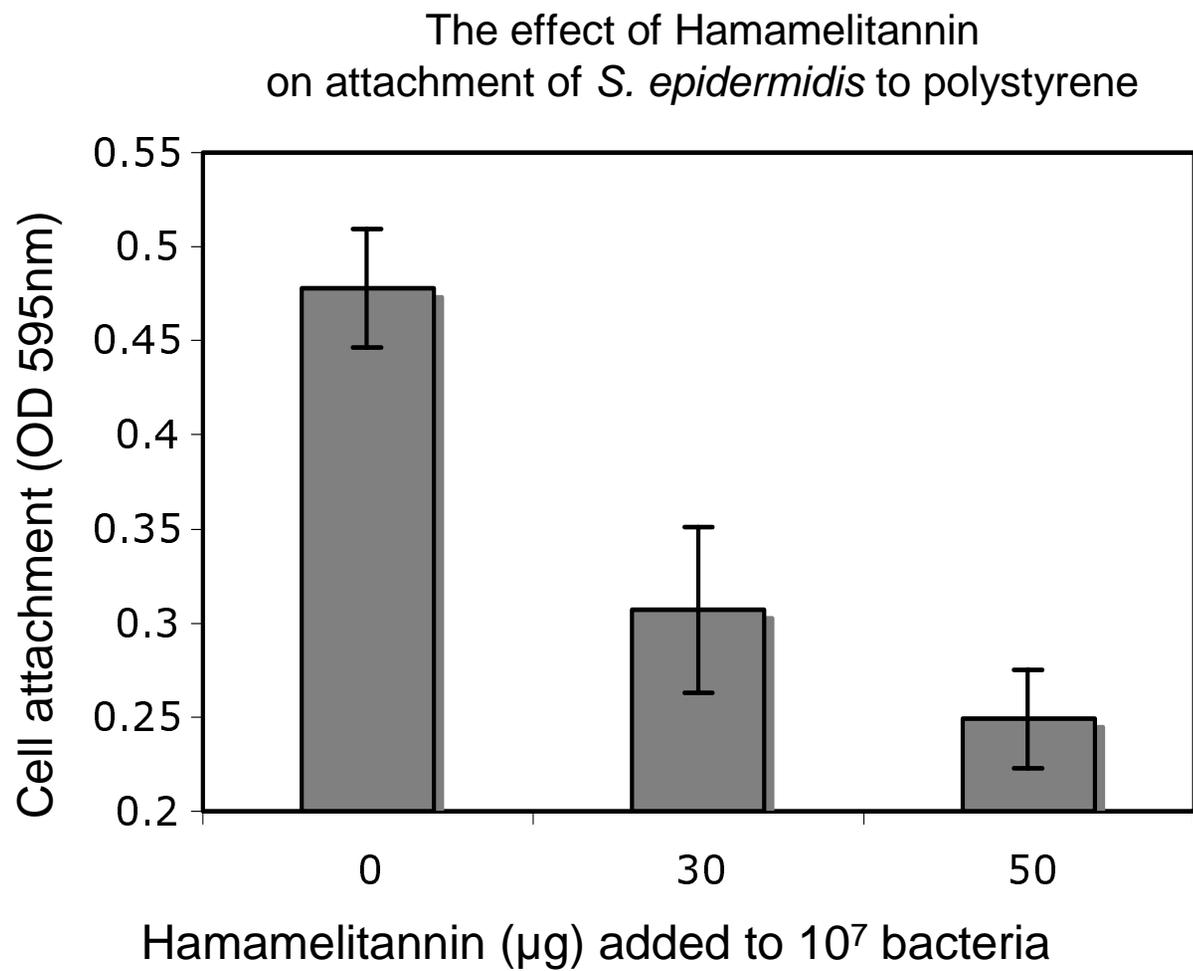


Figure 7A

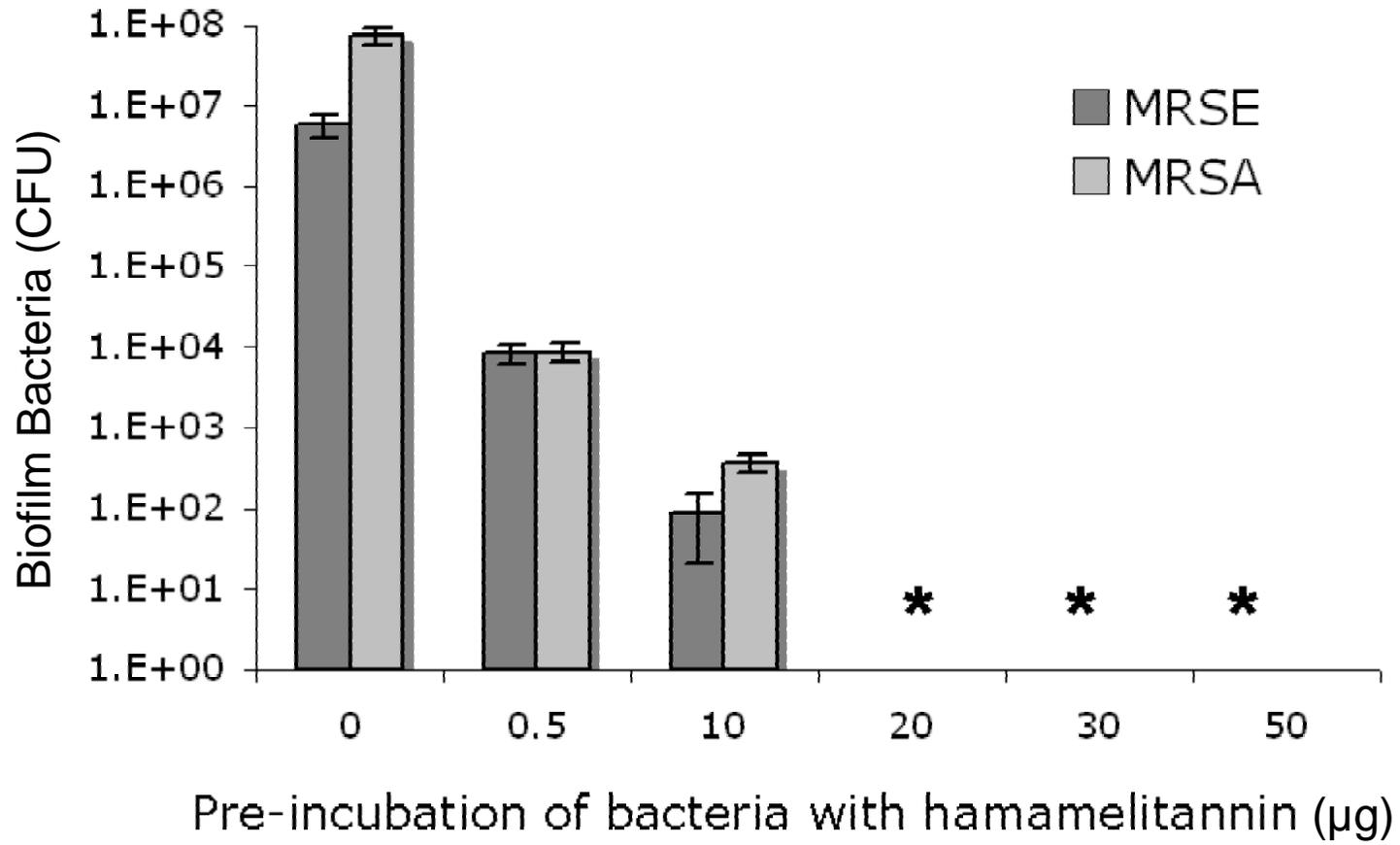


Figure 7B

